THE

THIRD BOOK

OF

HISTORY,

CONTAINING

ANCIENT HISTORY IN CONNECTION WITH ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY.

DESIGNED AS A SEQUEL TO THE

FIRST AND SECOND BOOKS OF HISTORY, BY THE AUTHOR OF PETER PARLEY'S TALES.

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In the two preceding volumes, questions were introduced, with a view to facilitate the examination of pupils. In the present volume, no questions are added, it being conceived that those who study it will be sufficiently practised to render the examination easy to the teacher and profitable to themselves, without the aid of printed interrogations.

As the maps at the end of the volume are deemed important, it is recommended that the pupils should be required to study them in connection with the text; and it is suggested to the teacher, that in the examination, the pupil be required to describe rivers, boundaries, cities, &c. Geographical notes are added at the foot of the pages, which should be studied in connection with the passages to which they refer.

THE CHILD'S

THIRD BOOK OF HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

GREECE.

1. ANCIENT GREECE comprehended that country which recently formed the southern part of Turkey, in Europe. It was bounded on the east by the Ægean sea, now called the Archipelago; on the west by the Ionian sea, or Adriatic gulf; and on the north by Illyria and Thrace. Its length from north to south was about three hundred and fifty miles; and its breadth about two hundred and fifty miles.

2. The history of the first ages of Greece is involved in obscurity. Their first historians were their poets, whose writings are so mingled with fiction, as to render the real occurrences which they relate, nearly unintelligible. Greece* was at first divided into seven small principalities or kingdoms Sicyon, Argos, Mycene, Thebes, Corinth, Sparta, and Athens.

3. Sicyon, founded in the year before Christ 2101, took its name from Sicyon, a

* 1856 years B. C. a small Phœnician colony arrived in Greece. The Phœnicians were enterprising navigators, and became early acquainted with the shores of the Mediterranean sea. Inachus, their leader, founded a city which he called Argos, at a distance of about twenty miles from the present town of Napoli. Upon this early period of Grecian history, the fancy of the poets of that nation has luxuriated. According to their accounts, the primitive Grecians wandered lawless in the woods, clothed in the skins of the beasts on which they fed, and occasionally eating the flesh of the prisoners they took in war.

The fabulous histories state that Uranus came to Greece from Egypt or Phœnicia. He became king, and had a family of giants called Titans, who rebelled against their father, dethroned him and their brother Saturn, and reigned in their stead. Jupiter, who was saved and brought up at Crete, finally conquered the Titans and divided his dominions with his brothers Pluto and Neptune. His palace was at mount Olympus.

Inachus was firmly established in Greece, and his successors retained the government for more than three hundred years. The other inhabitants of Greece remained in a barbarous state until Cecrops, an Egyptian, who founded Athens 1556 years B. C., improved their condition. He brought a colony of his countrymen, and built eleven villages besides Athens. He gave laws to the wild nations of Greece, whom he divided into twelve tribes, and among whom he introduced the institution of marriage.

Thence the history of Greece may be relied upon, although few facts have been handed down to us. Sparta, or Lacedæmon, was founded by Lelex, an Egyptian, in the year 1520. He was king, and his family furnished monarchs to the kingdom for many years. Lacedæmon, from whom the country took its name, was the fourth king. Corinth appears to have been founded in 1520. It was subject to Argos, but was seized upon and ruled in 1514 by Sisyphus, a cruel and rapacious man. Thebes was founded by Cadmus in the year 1500 B. C. His story, as told by the poets, is, that having gone in pursuit of Europa, his sister, who was carried off by Jupiter, he remained in Greece, fearing to return without her to his father. He arrived there in 1419. Theseus, after the celebrated Argonautic expedition to Colchis, visited Athens, the inhabitants of which were then groaning under the weight of a tribute of seven girls and seven youths who were annually sent to Minos, king of Crete, to become his slaves. Theseus, on presenting himself to Minos, obtained a release from the cruel tribute, and the hand of Ariadne, the king's daughter, in marriage.

town situated near the isthmus of Corinth, and supposed by some to be the most ancient city of Greece. Argos* surpassed Sicyon in wealth and power. Phoroneus, one of the kings of Argos, reduced the Peloponnese under his dominion. Pelops, the son of Tantalus, king of Phrygia, afterwards became master of the Peloponnese, and his descendants, who were distinguished by the name of the Pelopidæ, were famous in the history of Greece.

4. Perseus, one of the kings of Argos, transferred his throne to Mycene,† and established his new kingdom on a firm foundation. One of his successors, Eurystheus, imposed upon Hercules the twelve labors so greatly celebrated in fiction. It may be concluded that the Nemean lion, and the seven-headed hydra, said to have been destroyed by Hercules, were robbers or murderers extirpated by him. The descendants of Hercules were known by the name of the Heraclidæ.

5. The first king of Thebes* is supposed to have been Cadmus, a native of Egypt. The introduction of the Phœnician alphabet into Greece is attributed to him. Xanthus is thought to have been the last king of Thebes, the government on his death having become republican.

6. Corinth, situated upon the narrow neck of land which joins the Peloponnese to the continent, was surnamed the *eye of Greece*. With respect to the kings of Corinth, little is known. One of them, named Bacchis, left a numerous posterity, surnamed the *Bacchides*, who afterwards engrossed the whole power of the state, and rendered the government aristocratical.

7. Eurotas was the founder of the city of Sparta,† so called after his daughter, the wife of Lacedæmon, who gave his name to the country, as his wife had given hers to the city. Tyndarus, one of the successors of Eurotas, married Leda, who became mother of the two famous heroes, Castor and Pollux, and of the no less celebrated daughters, Clytemnestra, the wife of Agamemnon, and Helen, who gave occasion to the Trojan war.

8. The city of Troy stood on a small eminence near mount Ida and the promontory of Sigæum, about four miles from the seashore. The Trojans were believed to have been originally a Greek colony. Their first king was Dardanus, a native of Arcadia,‡ who built the city and called it

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The poets have disguised this story, representing the Athenian captives as having been devoured by a monster, the Minotaur, who dwelt in a labyrinth, the clue to which Ariadne gave to Theseus, who slew the monster, and returned in safety. He ascended the throne of Athens, and, in the year 1257, united the twelve cities of Attica, and gave them a common constitution.

* Argos, the capital of Argolis, was situated about two miles from the sea, in that portion of Greece called the Peloponnēsus. The Peloponnēsus was a celebrated peninsula comprehending the southern parts of Greece. It derived its name from Pelops, as the word indicates, meaning the *island of Pelops*. It has been called *Argia*, *Pelasgia*, and *Argolis*, and has been thought to resemble in its form the leaf of the plane tree. Its present name, the *Morea*, is derived from the Greek word, signifying a *mulberry tree*, which is found there in great abundance. It was nearly one hundred miles in length, one hundred and forty in breadth, and about five hundred and sixty-eight in circumference. Separated from Greece only by the narrow isthmus of Corinth, which is only five miles broad, it appeared practicable to cut through the isthmus and open a communication between the bay of Corinth and the Saronic gulf. But Cæsar, Nero and Demetrius attempted it in vain.

† Mycēnæ, a town of Argolis in the Peloponnēsus, was situated on a small river east of the Inachus, about fifty stadia from Argos. Its name was given from Mycene, a nymph of Laconia.

* Thebes, the capital of Bœotia, was situated on the banks of the river Ismenus.

† This noted city of the Peloponnēsus, and the capital of Laconia, was situated on the river Eurotas, about thirty miles from its mouth.

‡ Arcădia, a country of the Peloponnēsus, begirt on every side by land, was situated between Achaia, Messenia, Elis, and Argolis. It took its name from Arcas, the son of Jupiter, was anciently called Drymodes, on account of the abundance of the *oak tree*, and afterward Lycaonia and Pelasgia. This country has been much celebrated by the poets from the beauty and tranquillity of its rural life; it was also famous for its mountains. The inhabitants were principally shepherds, who were skilful warriors and sweet musicians. They fed upon acorns, and their instrument of music was the reed or pipe. The fabled Pan, god of shepherds, is said to have dwelt in Arcadia.

Dardania. From Tros, one of his successors, it received the name of Troy, and from Ilus, that of Ilion.

9. Priam, its last king, had arrived at a very high pitch of wealth and power. The Trojan war was undertaken by the Greeks, to recover Helen, the wife of Menelaus, king of Sparta, who was carried off by Paris, the son of Priam. This war has been celebrated in the poems of Homer and Virgil, and is the most famous in ancient history.

10. Agamemnon, the brother of Menelaus, was appointed general of all the Grecian forces; but the princes and kings of Greece were admitted among his counsellors. Among the most celebrated of these were Achilles, Ajax, Menelaus, Ulysses, Diomedes, Patroclus, &c. Aulis* was the general rendezvous of the Grecian forces; and their army, when assembled there, amounted to one hundred thousand men.

11. When the Greeks landed on the plains of Troy, they sent Menelaus and Ulysses to demand the restitution of Helen; and on the refusal of Priam to deliver up the princess, both parties prepared for war.

12. The Trojan war lasted ten years, with various success. The most valiant of the Trojan generals was Hector, the son of Priam and Hecuba. On one occasion, he beat the enemy from the field, forced the entrenchments, and set fire to their ships. But he was slain in a personal combat with Achilles, who afterwards fell by the hand of Paris; and he in like manner was slain by Philoctetus.

13. The Trojans, having lost their best commanders, reposed their last hope on the famous Palladium, a statue of Minerva, supposed to have dropped from heaven, and which was said to render Troy impregnable, so long as it remained within the walls. At length, however, some of the Trojans betrayed the city into the hands of the enemy, and Troy was reduced to ashes. Priam and his family were put to death. The taking of Troy is the most celebrated epoch in the history of the Greeks; and the Trojan war was the first public display of Grecian valor. This event happened about eleven hundred and eighty-four years before the Christian era.

*A seaport town of Bœotia, near Chalcis.

Destruction of Troy.

CHAPTER II.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. The Heraclidæ, having laid claim to the Peloponnese, as theirs by hereditary right, annihilated the power of the Pelopidæ. They also obliged the Acheans to remove to Asia Minor, where they occupied that part of the continent formerly called Eolia, and founded Smyrna, besides other cities.

2. The Ionians also retired before the power of the Heraclidæ to Asia Minor, where they took possession of the country called after them Ionia.

3. The four principal tribes of Greece, the Eolians, Acheans, Ionians, and Dorians, were perfectly independent of one another, and hence arose the four principal Greek dialects; the Ionic, the Doric, the Attic, and the Eolic.

4. For nine hundred years, the Heraclidæ and Pelopidæ furnished kings to Sparta; but nothing worthy of notice occurs in their history, until the reformation of their government by the celebrated Lycurgus.

5. In the year B. C. 1556, Cecrops, a native of Egypt, led a colony of his coun-

trymen into Greece, settled in Attica,* and founded the kingdom of Athens. He divided the country into twelve districts, and assumed the name of king. The city was built on a hill in the midst of an extensive

View of Athens.

plain, and the citadel on the rock in which the hill terminated. He introduced the worship of Jupiter and Minerva, and instituted the Areopagus, or senate, who held their deliberations upon a hill near the citadel.

6. Amphictyon, one of the successors of Cecrops, instituted the famous assembly called after his name, B. C. 1497. It was composed of deputies from twelve of the neighboring states. These deputies, chosen from among the wisest and most virtuous men of Greece, had the power of determining all controversies between those states, and of imposing high fines on the party who was found in the wrong.

7. In the reign of Amphictyon, Bacchus, known also by the name of Dionysius, came from the east, and instructed the Greeks in many useful arts, particularly in the culture of the vine. On his death, he was revered as a god, and altars were reared to his memory.

* A country of Achaia, or Hellas, in the south of Bœotia, west of the Ægean sea, north of the Saronic gulf, (*Saronicus sinus*) and east of Megara. It took its name from Atthis, the daughter of Cranaus. From the Ionians, it was originally called Ionia, then Acte, which means *shore*, and also Cecropia from its first king. It was famous for its gold and silver mines, the principal sources of the public revenues.

8. Codrus was the last king of Athens, for at his death the government became republican, by the establishment of archons, an office little inferior in point of power to that of royalty itself.

9. Thus the government in all the Grecian states was originally monarchical; until the tyranny of their different princes aroused within the minds of the Greeks that ardent desire of liberty which ever afterwards characterized them, and divided them into so many separate republics.

10. Of these, Athens and Sparta were the most distinguished, both in wisdom and merit; and between them a spirit of rivalry existed, which afterwards broke out in dissension and open contest.

11. Lycurgus was the brother of Polydectes, king of Sparta, and might himself have ascended the throne, had he not honorably preferred the claims of his infant nephew, Charilaus, the son of the deceased monarch. Perceiving that the laws were entirely disregarded in Sparta, he meditated a reformation in the government. For this purpose, he travelled into foreign countries, visited Crete, Asia, and Egypt, compared their customs and institutions, and having acquired a vast fund of knowledge, returned to his native country.

12. There he found every thing in a state of anarchy and confusion. Before proceeding to promulgate his laws, he went to Delphos and consulted the oracle. The priestess received him with every mark of honor, his intentions were approved by the divinity, and he was pronounced to be the friend of gods, and himself rather god than man. After this response, Lycurgus found little difficulty in reforming the abuses of the state.

13. During the remainder of his life, his time was wholly employed in perfecting and enforcing his laws. The public government was managed by two kings, a senate, the people, and the ephori. The kings enjoyed little authority, except in time of war, when they commanded the army in the quality of generals. The senate was composed of thirty members, including the two kings. To it was entrusted the whole legislative power, and

this institution was intended by Lycurgus to balance on one hand the power of the kings; and on the other, that of the people.

14. The power of the people was limited, and their chief privilege was that of choosing the members of the senate. The ephori were not created till one hundred and thirty years after the death of Lycurgus, and were intended to curb the power of the senate. They were five in number, were chosen by the people out of their own number, and continued only one year in office.

15. The whole territory of Laconia was divided by Lycurgus into thirty thousand shares, and the land equally distributed among the inhabitants. The liberties of Sparta were in like manner divided into nine thousand shares, and allotted to the inhabitants of the city. The use of gold and silver was prohibited, and iron money alone was permitted to be used.

16. Thus luxury was banished, and riches held in contempt. All public shows, and all superfluous arts were also forbidden in Sparta, and the only lawful amusements were hunting and bodily exercises.

17. The rich and the poor were obliged to eat of the same diet, at public tables, appointed for that purpose. Their ordinary and most esteemed fare was a sort of black broth. Even the young women were accustomed from childhood to a course of hardy exercises, such as wrestling, running, and throwing the javelin. The most inhuman regulation of Lycurgus was in regard to the infant children, who, if considered sickly and delicate, were put to death.

18. The love of their country was the chief sentiment of the Spartans, and the science of war was their only study. Thus they became a nation of hardy and unfeeling warriors, and acquired a pre-eminence over all Greece.

19. Lycurgus having finished his work, and seen his institutions firmly established, declared his intention of again consulting the oracle; and obtained the solemn promise of his countrymen to observe them till his return. On arriving at Delphos, he was assured by the oracle, that while Sparta kept his laws, she should be the most illustrious and happy city in the world. Lycurgus having transmitted this response to Sparta, died a voluntary death, by abstaining from all food.

20. In the year B. C. 685, the Messenians, who had endured the Spartan yoke for thirty years, resolved to attempt the recovery of their liberty. After repeated engagements with the Lacedemonians, they were entirely overpowered, and Aristomenes, their last and brave general, was slain. They then retired to Sicily, where they founded the city of Messina.

CHAPTER III.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. In the year B. C. 643, the Athenians, finding that the ambition and turbulence of their archons was the cause of constant dissension in the state, pitched on the famous Solon, a native of Salamis, to restore tranquillity in their city. They created him archon extraordinary, and granted him unlimited power.

2. Solon applied himself to discharge the trust reposed in him, with great diligence and caution. The Athenians were divided into different ranks; citizens, strangers, servants, and slaves. Solon devised a form of government purely popular, yet with every precaution against the dangers incident to that system. He first procured an acquittal of all debts then subsisting among the citizens, and then divided them into four classes, in proportion to the wealth of each.

3. The first three included the richer citizens, who alone were to hold offices of trust or dignity. The fourth class contained the poorer citizens, who, though excluded from office, had the privilege of voting in the public assemblies.

4. These assemblies were composed of the whole collective body of the citizens, and in them was vested the whole power of the commonwealth. As some restraint on these popular meetings, Solon instituted the senate, composed of four hundred men,

one hundred being chosen out of each tribe. He also instituted the court of the areopagus, which was celebrated for the justice and integrity of its judges.

5. The Athenians were equally brave and warlike with the Spartans, though educated in a less hardy manner. Various honors and rewards were bestowed at Athens on those who performed any extraordinary feats of valor. Such as fell in the service of their country had monuments erected to their memory; while their children were maintained and educated at the public expense.

6. Solon, having bound the citizens by oath to maintain his laws, left Athens for ten years, and during his absence various factions disturbed the peace of the commonwealth. The most popular leader of these factions was Pisistratus, who covered his ambitious designs under an appearance of mildness and liberality. His ambition was soon made manifest; for having, by the assistance of his confederates, seized upon the citadel, he soon after made himself master of the whole city.

7. Solon, overwhelmed with grief, retired to the island of Cyprus, where he died, B. C. 560. Pisistratus transmitted his usurped sovereignty to his two sons, Hipparchus and Hippias. Their reign was happy and prosperous; they shared the kingdom between them, and lived in perfect harmony. They encouraged sciences and learned men. Anacreon and Simonides were invited to court, and according to Plato this period of Athenian history revived the idea of the golden age.

8. However, after some time, Hippias became cruel and despotic. The Athenians revolted, and formed a conspiracy against the brothers. Hipparchus was slain, and Hippias was soon after forced to resign the sovereignty, B. C. 510.

9. The Lacedemonians becoming envious of the flourishing condition of Athens, began to deliberate about restoring tyranny among them, and setting Hippias again on the throne. They therefore invited him to Sparta, where the question was debated at a public assembly. But they were soon persuaded of the injustice of such a proceeding, and Hippias, thus disappointed, retired to the court of Artaphernes, the Persian governor of Sardis,* and implored his assistance.

10. The satrap, delighted at such an opportunity being opened to his master Darius, of conquering Greece, received Hippias favorably, and persuaded Darius to command the Athenians to replace him on the throne. The Athenians refused to comply with the mandate of the Persian king, and thus was laid the first foundation of the wars between Greece and Persia.

11. Darius, being resolved to gratify his ambition, gave orders to fit out a fleet of three hundred ships, and to raise a powerful land army. The command of the forces was given to his son-in-law Mardonius. This first expedition was unsuccessful. A violent tempest destroyed many of the ships, while the troops, in passing through Thrace, were attacked and routed by the Thracians, during the night.

12. The Athenians, meanwhile, enjoyed their freedom, and many citizens of extraordinary wisdom and valor flourished in Athens at this period. Of these, the chief were Miltiades, Aristides, and Themistocles. Sparta, still adhering to the wise laws of Lycurgus, produced a whole nation of the bravest soldiers.

13. Darius, in order to sound the inclinations of the different states, sent heralds through Greece, to demand earth and water; a symbol which denoted submission and dependence from those who gave, to him who demanded it.

14. The Athenians and Spartans, provoked by the arrogance of these demands, seized the heralds, and throwing one into a well, and another into a deep ditch, told

* Sardis, or Sardes, now *Sart*, a town of Asia Minor, was the capital of Lydia, and situated at the foot of the noted mount Tmolus, on the banks of the Pactolus, a river which is fabled to have flowed over golden sands. It was destroyed by an earthquake during the reign of Tiberius, who ordered it to be rebuilt. It was captured by Cyrus, B. C. 548, and burnt by the Athenians, B. C. 504.

them to take from thence as much earth and water as they pleased.

Reception of Messengers of Darius.

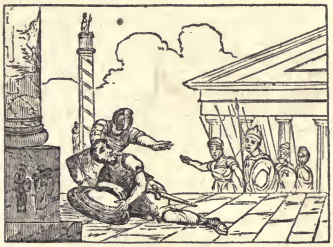
15. Darius now doubled his warlike preparations, and increased his armament to five hundred thousand men, and five hundred ships. Datis and Artaphernes were the commanders, and Hippias acted as their guide. The Persian army entered Attica, and encamped at Marathon, a small town on the sea-coast. The Athenians could only collect ten thousand men. The chief command of this small army was given to Miltiades.

16. The Athenians then, ten thousand in number, marched forth against an army of one hundred thousand foot and ten thousand horse. To prevent them from being surrounded by the Persians, Miltiades drew up his forces with a mountain in the rear; and caused a number of trees to be cut down, to prevent the enemy from charging them in the flank.

17. The signal for attack being given, the Athenians rushed forward upon the Persians like so many furious lions, opened a passage through the enemy, and threw them into irretrievable confusion. Six thousand Persians, together with the traitor Hippias, were slain on the spot.

18. The rest fled, abandoning to the victors all the riches and luxuries of their camp. The chief glory of this memorable day was due to Miltiades; though every individual soldier was animated by the most ardent love for his country.

19. We are told that one of these brave men, all covered with the blood of the enemy, ran to announce the victory at Athens, and after calling out, 'Rejoice! we are conquerors,' fell dead in the presence of his fellow citizens.



Dying Soldier announcing the Victory.

20. The Athenians soon after gave a striking proof of their ingratitude and caprice. Miltiades, being sent out with a fleet to chastise the islands which had assisted the Persians, was unsuccessful at Paros.* He was accused as a traitor, and the fickle multitude, forgetful of his past services, condemned him to death. The sentence was afterwards commuted to a fine, which Miltiades was unable to pay. He was thrown into prison, where he soon after died.

21. Aristides, surnamed "the just," soon after fell a victim to the popular ingratitude. He was banished from the city by the sentence of ostracism. This was a punishment whereby the people might satisfy their jealousy against any citizen who had become obnoxious to them, by banishing him from the city for ten years. Its name was derived from a Greek word, signifying a particular kind of shell, on which each citizen inscribed his vote.

* An island belonging to the group in the Ægean sea which surround Delos in a *circle*, and thence called Cyclades. Paros is distant about seven miles from Naxos, and twenty-eight from Delos. According to Pliny, it is about thirty-six or thirty-seven miles in circumference; but some of the moderns have extended it to fifty and even eighty miles. It has been called at different periods, Pactia, Minoa, Hiroa, Demetrias, Zacynthus, Cabarnis, and Hyleassa. The island, among other productions, was famous for its beautiful white marble, which was used by the best sculptors.

CHAPTER IV.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. Darius, king of Persia, being cut off by death in the midst of preparing for his third expedition into Greece, was succeeded by his son Xerxes, B. C. 484. This prince resolved to prosecute the war, and in the fifth year of his reign, departed from Susa* for Sardis, the rendezvous of his army. He ordered his fleet to sail towards the Hellespont,† and commanded that a passage should be cut for it through mount Athos.‡

2. To transport his troops from Asia to Europe, he ordered a bridge to be thrown over that part of the Hellespont now called Gallipoli. A storm having destroyed this bridge, Xerxes was so enraged at the accident, that, according to Herodotus, he ordered three hundred lashes to be given to the sea; and chains to be thrown over it as if to bind it.

3. When the Persian army arrived in Thrace, Xerxes ordered it to be drawn up

Xerxes surveying his Fleet.

in the neighboring plains, and ascended an eminence whence he might view the mighty host. It is said that the tyrant wept, when he reflected that in one hundred years, not one of so vast a multitude would remain.

4. His land forces amounted to about two millions of men. His fleet consisted of one thousand two hundred and seven galleys, each carrying two hundred men; besides one hundred and twenty vessels, furnished by the European states, and three thousand transports.

5. The Bœotians, Thessalians, &c. terrified at the impending danger, submitted to the Persians; and thus the whole burden of the war fell upon the Athenians and Lacedemonians. The states of Platea and Thespia alone took part with them. Themistocles was appointed commander-in-chief of the Athenian forces, and Aristides was recalled from banishment to assist in the emergency. Eurybiades, a Lacedemonian, was appointed commander-in-chief of the united forces of both states.

6. The first step taken by the allies was to dispatch Leonidas, one of the reigning kings of Sparta, at the head of ten thousand, or, according to some historians, of four thousand men, to defend the pass of Thermopylæ, situated at the foot of mount Œta, between Thessaly and Phocis, the only passage by which Xerxes could penetrate into Achaia.

7. Xerxes, after marching through Thrace and Macedonia, arrived at the pass of Thermopylæ, and found it guarded by Leonidas and his small army of brave Spartans. The Persian monarch sent a messenger to Leonidas, commanding him to send him his arms. 'Let your king come and take them,' said Leonidas.

8. The Medes first advanced against the Greeks, but were forced to retreat. Then the troop of Persians, called the *Immortal*, charged the troops of Leonidas. The pass became choked up with dead bodies, when a treacherous Spartan, having discovered to the Persians a secret path which led to an eminence commanding the pass, a large

* The chief town of *Susiana*, and the capital of the Persian empire. It was the winter residence of the Persian kings, and the depot of their treasures. It has been called Memnonia, or the palace of Memnon, because that prince reigned there.

† Now the *Dardanelles*, a narrow strait between Asia and Europe. It took its name from Helle, who was drowned there on her voyage to Colchis.

‡ A mountain of Macedonia, one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, projecting into the Ægean sea like a promontory. From its great height it casts a shadow upon the island of Lemnos, eight leagues distant. It is now called Monte Santo.

body of Persian troops were sent to take possession of it.

9. When Leonidas heard that the rocks were covered with armed men, he entreated the greater part of his army to retire, and reserve themselves for a future opportunity of serving Greece. They obeyed his desire; and Leonidas, with three hundred Spartans and a few Thespians, resolved to maintain the pass to the last. 'Come, my friends,' said he, 'let us dine cheerfully, in the hope of supping together in another world.'

10. In the dead of night, this small band of heroes advanced to the Persian camp, and spread consternation among the enemy. Daylight at length discovered the smallness of their numbers. They were

Death of Leonidas.

immediately surrounded and slaughtered, leaving an example of intrepidity perhaps unparalleled in history.

11. A superb monument was erected to their memory, with this inscription: "Go, passenger, and tell at Sparta, that we died here in obedience to her laws."

12. The Greeks, now seeing themselves, notwithstanding these heroic struggles, on the eve of being crushed by the Persian power, abandoned their city, by the advice of Themistocles, and having conveyed their women, children, and infirm persons to Trœzene,* betook themselves to their ships.

13. The Persians, on arriving at Athens, found nothing but silence and desolation within its walls. They attacked the citadel, where were a few infirm old men, who, from their age, could not be removed to Trœzene. These they put to the sword, after meeting with a brave resistance from the feeble garrison. The city itself was set on fire.

14. In the mean time, the Greeks prepared to give battle to the Persians in the straits of Salamis.* Their fleet consisted of three hundred and eighty sail. Xerxes ordered a superb throne to be erected on a neighboring eminence, from whence he might view the battle.

15. The Greeks were entirely victorious, and this engagement, one of the most memorable in ancient history, acquired them immortal fame both for wisdom and courage. Xerxes took flight, and he, whose mighty fleet had but lately covered the sea, was forced to recross the Hellespont in a poor fishing bark.

16. The Persians, commanded by Mardonius, were again defeated by the Greeks at Platea,† B. C. 479, and Greece was at length delivered from the innumerable swarms of barbarians, who for two years had laid waste and consumed her fertile territories.

CHAPTER V.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. The Athenians having now recovered perfect tranquillity, brought back their wives and children to Athens, rebuilt the walls, and increased the extent of the city. Themistocles, in order to strengthen the power of the republic, fortified *Pireus*, the harbor of Athens. The Athenians soon after fitted out a fleet for the purpose of freeing several cities in Asia Minor from the Persian yoke, and gave the command to Pausanias, Aristides, and Cimon the son of Miltiades.

* A town of Argolis, on the Saronic Gulf.

* Salamis, Salamins, or Salamina, now Colouri, is an island in the Saronic Gulf, on the southern coast of Attica. It is opposite Eleusis, and about a league distant from it. Its circumference is about fifty miles. The island was originally called Cychria, or Ceuchria, and its bay the gulf of Eugia.

† A town of Bœotia on the confines of Megaris and Attica, and near Mount Cithæron.

2. The expedition was successful; but the arrogance of Pausanias having disgusted the troops, the chief command of the fleet was given to Aristides and Cimon. Soon after, Pausanias was discovered in carrying on a treacherous correspondence with Xerxes. The traitor fled for safety to the temple of Minerva. The ephori, unwilling to violate the sanctity of the temple, yet desiring to punish the criminal, ordered the entry to be shut up, in order that he might be starved to death; which took place accordingly.

3. Soon after, Themistocles having offended the Athenians by his ardent thirst for power, was banished from Athens. His enemies took advantage of his absence to accuse him of having maintained a secret understanding with Pausanias; and Themistocles, fearing for his safety, took refuge at the court of Admetus, king of the Molossi. The Athenians required that prince to deliver him up, and the illustrious exile, to retire still farther from these cruel persecutions, escaped from the court of Admetus, and threw himself on the protection of Artaxerxes, the reigning monarch of Persia.

4. Artaxerxes, astonished at his intrepidity in thus throwing himself into the power of the mortal enemy of Greece, resolved to act a generous part, and to bind Themistocles in his interests, by loading him with favors. The revenues of three cities were assigned him as a fund of subsistence. He married a Persian lady of the highest birth; and became the chosen companion of the Persian king, who on all occasions testified the highest esteem and friendship for him.

5. At length, however, Artaxerxes having resolved to send a powerful army into Attica, offered the command to Themistocles. Unable to choose between his duty to his country, and his gratitude to his protector, Themistocles assembled his friends, and having bade them a solemn farewell, he swallowed poison, and expired in the sixty-sixth year of his age, B. C. 466.

6. Aristides meanwhile being at the head of public affairs in Greece, presented in all respects the perfect model of a good citizen. The leading men who succeeded him, adorned Athens with beautiful temples, statues, and porticos; but according to Plutarch, Aristides adorned it with virtue. He despised riches, and died in such poverty as not to leave sufficient funds to bury him. The republic charged itself with this last duty; and his children were considered as under the protection of the state.

7. Cimon, the son of Miltiades, was one of the most illustrious men of this age As a commander, he rivalled his father in valor; he equalled Themistocles in acuteness and prudence, and Aristides in integrity and virtue. After delivering the Greek colonies from the Persian yoke, he continued his conquests in Asia, and reduced many of the enemy's cities. He then attacked the Persian fleet near Cyprus,* and after a desperate engagement, sunk some of their ships, and put the rest to flight.

8. He crowned his victories by the capture of the Phœnician fleet, which was coming to the assistance of the Persians, and thus gave a fatal blow to the Persian naval power. Yet, like most of the illustrious men of the republic, his services were rewarded with ingratitude, and he was banished for ten years from his native country.

9. During the absence of Cimon, the celebrated Pericles rose to absolute power in Athens. He embraced the party of the people, and obtained their admiration by the striking dignity of his manner, his splendid oratory, graceful person, and noble deportment. The boldness of his eloquence procured him the appellation of the Olympian; being compared by the people to the thunder of Jupiter.

10. He introduced luxury and idleness into Athens, and lavished the public money in a profuse and ostentatious manner. About this time, the spirit of discord broke out in Greece, not only between the Spartans and Athenians, but between all the other states.

* An island in the Mediterranean sea, south of Cilicia, and west of Syria; according to Pliny, formerly united to the continent near Syria. It has borne the different names of Acamantis, Amathusia, Aspelia, Cerastis, Colonia or Colinia, Macaria, and Spechio.

11. The Athenians, at length becoming sensible of their injustice to Cimon, recalled him from banishment, and soon after his return, he brought about a peace between his countrymen and the Lacedemonians.

12. Being appointed to carry on the war against the Persians in Egypt and Cyprus, he laid siege to Citium, a town in that island, and died during the course of the siege, B. C. 449.

13. Athens, under the administration of Pericles, assumed a new appearance. Pomp and magnificence usurped the place of simplicity. The city became adorned with the master-pieces of the greatest artists. Those works of Grecian skill, which have attracted the admiration of succeeding ages, whether in painting, sculpture, or architecture, may be considered as chiefly owing to the liberal encouragement which Pericles bestowed upon all men of talent and genius.

CHAPTER VI.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. A war now broke out in Greece, known by the name of the Peloponnesian war. It lasted twenty-seven years, and was attended with immense expense, and a great effusion of blood. Its immediate cause was the jealousy conceived by the other states of Greece of the exorbitant power of the Athenians.

2. All the states within the Peloponnese, except the Argives, joined the Lacedemonians. They were also assisted by the Locrians, Bœotians, and Megarians. The Athenians were supported by the inhabitants of Chios* and Lesbos,† by the city of Platea, and all their tributary countries, such as Ionia, the Hellespont, the cities of Thrace, &c.

3. B. C. 431, hostilities were begun by the Thebans, who attacked the city of Platea. Immediately, all Greece rose in arms. The Lacedemonians entered Attica, while the Athenian fleet made a descent upon Laconia, and laid waste the coasts of the Peloponnese.

4. As Pericles went on board his galley on the setting out of this expedition, a total eclipse of the sun spread consternation among the superstitious Athenians. Upon seeing their terror, Pericles threw his cloak over the face of the pilot, and asked him if he saw. The pilot having replied that he could not, Pericles exclaimed to those around him, that the body of the moon, being in a similar manner interposed between their eyes and the sun, prevented them from seeing its light.

5. In the first campaign, the Athenians obtained several advantages, and the Spartans were forced to retire from Attica. Pericles pronounced the funeral oration upon those who had fallen in this war. Its lofty expression and beautiful sentiments are equally admired.

6. The following year was remarkable for a pestilence which raged in Athens, and which destroyed the greatest part of the inhabitants. The public calamity was heightened by the approach of the Peloponnese army on the borders of Attica, and by an unsuccessful expedition of the Athenians against Epidaurus and in Thrace.

7. This year, B. C. 429, was also rendered memorable by the death of Pericles, who for forty years had been at the head of the administration. As he was expiring, his friends surrounded his bed, and expatiated on the victories he had won, and the glorious actions he had achieved. He interrupted them by observing, that they overlooked a circumstance far more truly glorious than his victories. 'It is,' said he, 'that not a citizen in Athens has ever been obliged to put on mourning on my account.'

8. The following years did not give rise to any decisive events; but the revolt of Lesbos from the alliance of Athens was productive of fresh troubles. Mytilene, the capital of the island, was recovered, and the inhabitants treated with the utmost cruelty.

* Now Scio, an island in the Ægean sea, between Lesbos and Samos. Its name, by some, is supposed to have been taken from the Greek word signifying snow, which was there frequent.

† A large island in the Ægean sea, one hundred and fifty miles in circumference. It has been also called, severally, Ægira, Lasia, Æthiope, Pelasgia, and Macaria. It was the birth-place of Sappho, the celebrated poetess.

9. Both parties by turns obtained the superiority; and all those who obstructed their views, were massacred with the most unfeeling barbarity. At length, a peace was agreed on for the space of fifty years between the two republics; but before one year had expired, the intrigues of the Corinthians occasioned fresh discord, and hostilities recommenced with greater fury than before.

10. Nicias and Alcibiades were now at the head of public affairs in Athens, and each were supported by a rival faction. The former had shown himself a skilful general and a virtuous citizen. The latter was ambitious, and addicted to pleasure; of a daring genius; yet capable, in the pursuance of his designs, of adapting himself to the humor of every person whom it was his interest to please.

11. He was remarkable for his eloquence —his dexterity in war—for the beauty of his person, and the grace of his manner. His descent was illustrious, his riches immense; and by his magnificence and profusion, especially in the splendid feasts with which he entertained the people, he obtained their love and admiration, and caused his haughtiness and extravagance to be forgotten.

12. While war was carried on with various success throughout Greece, the Athenians engaged in a new expedition, and sent a powerful fleet to assist the Sicilian states against the tyrannical power of Syracuse, a celebrated city of Sicily. Nicias warmly opposed this measure; but the eloquence and flattery of Alcibiades prevailed over the advice of his more cautious rival. The view of the fleet under sail attracted the admiration of the multitude; for so magnificent an armament had never before been displayed by any city in the western world.

CHAPTER VII.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. The enemies of Alcibiades took advantage of his absence, on this expedition, to bring various accusations against him; and a vessel was despatched to bring him before the Athenian people to stand his trial. Alcibiades disobeyed the summons and fled to Sparta, where he was received with the highest marks of esteem; and in a short while, by adapting himself to the rigid austerity and temperance which distinguished the Spartans, he rendered himself universally popular among them.

2. Meanwhile, the sole command of the war having devolved upon Nicias, he carried it on in the slow and irresolute manner that was natural to him, and which formed the chief defect in his character. At last, he retired to Catana,* without performing any exploit worthy of notice.

3. Meanwhile, the Syracusans made vigorous preparations for their defence, and Nicias, roused by the reproaches which were heaped upon him for his supineness, resolved to attack Syracuse by sea and land. The siege of Syracuse is one of the most remarkable in history. The city was originally founded by Archias, a Corinthian, and one of the Heraclidæ, about seven hundred and thirty-two years before the Christian era.

4. It was one of the most beautiful and powerful cities possessed by the Greeks, and was divided into three parts: 1st. The island, called *Ortygia*, separated by a narrow arm of the sea from the main land. The second division, called *Acradina*, stood on the main land, and communicated with Ortygia by means of a bridge. This formed the main division of the city. The third division was called *Tyche*, and adjoined Acradina on the land side. The fortification, named Hexapolis, commanded the access to Tyche; and when to this was added the large suburb of Epipolis, it formed one of the most extensive cities then in the world.

5. The Syracusans were thrown into consternation by the arrival of the Athenians, and applied to Corinth and Sparta for assistance. Alcibiades, to revenge himself for the ingratitude of his countrymen, per-

* A town of Sicily, situated at the foot of Mount Ætna.

suaded the Lacedemonians to send Gylippus to Sicily as general, and also to attack the Athenians in Attica.

6. The arrival of assistance from Sparta changed the fortune of the war, which till then had been favorable to the Athenians. Nicias, finding that every day the number of his troops diminished, wrote a pressing letter to his countrymen, describing in mournful terms the destruction of his galleys, and the loss of his soldiers and sailors. He also entreated them to send another commander in his room, as his infirmities rendered him incapable of discharging his duty.

7. The Athenians were in the utmost distress at this intelligence, and their dejection was heightened by the successful incursions which the Spartans were making in their territories. They sent two officers, Menander and Enthydemus, to assist Nicias; and other two, Eurymedon and Demosthenes, to supply the place of Lamachus, who was killed during the siege.

8. When the Athenian fleet, commanded by Demosthenes, richly ornamented, consisting of seventy-three galleys, advanced towards Syracuse in triumph, the citizens were seized with consternation. Demosthenes, against the advice of Nicias, resolved to take advantage of this alarm, by attacking Epipolis. He led his troops thither by night, attacked the entrenchments, repulsed the Syracusans, and for some time bore down every thing before them.

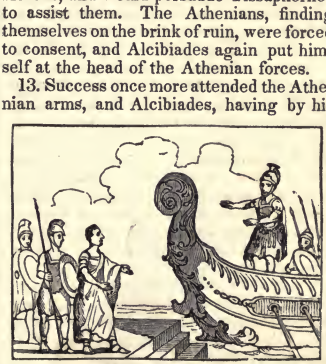
9. But their career was stopped by the Bœotian troops, who attacked them unexpectedly. The Athenians, seized with a panic, retreated in disorder. Many, in the darkness of the night, fell from the rocks, and were dashed in pieces. Their loss amounted to two thousand men.

10. After this defeat, the Athenians resolved to raise the siege and depart. The Syracusans, in order to frustrate their intention, shut up the mouth of the harbor with iron chains. Thus blocked up, the Athenians hazarded another sea fight. The engagement proved extremely bloody. The galleys were crowded together at the mouth of the harbor, and the battle raged furiously. Nothing was seen but the ruins of ships, and multitudes of dead and wounded. Amidst the noise and confusion, the commanders in vain issued their orders. The Athenian fleet was driven on shore, and the Syracusans were completely victorious.

11. The unfortunate Athenians then endeavored to retreat by night, but were pursued and attacked by their enemies. Nicias, to end the slaughter, surrendered to Gylippus; and, together with the remains of his army, was conducted back in triumph to Syracuse. There he was condemned to death, together with Demosthenes. The prisoners were thrown into miserable dungeons, where many of them perished. Those who survived were afterwards sold as slaves.

12. Meanwhile, Alcibiades having by his power and popularity in Sparta excited the jealousy of Agis, the Spartan king, had fled to the court of Tissaphernes, the Persian governor of Ionia and Lydia. The Athenians, repenting of their former ingratitude, now turned towards Alcibiades for assistance. He made it known to them, that if they would abolish the popular government and establish aristocracy, he would return to Athens, and would persuade Tissaphernes to assist them. The Athenians, finding themselves on the brink of ruin, were forced to consent, and Alcibiades again put himself at the head of the Athenian forces.

13. Success once more attended the Athenian arms, and Alcibiades, having by his



Return of Alcibiades.

naval victories rendered his countrymen masters of the Hellespont, returned trium-

phantly to his native city. All the people of Athens went out to meet him as his fleet entered the Pyreus, laden with the spoils of the vanquished; and this day was the most glorious of his life. He landed amidst shouts and acclamations; a crown of gold was decreed him; and but for the opposition of some of the principal citizens, the populace would have raised him to the sovereign authority.

CHAPTER VIII.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. The Spartans appointed Lysander, a brave but ambitious and artful man, as the chief commander of their fleet. Cyrus, the youngest son of Darius, king of Persia, was appointed by his father as governor of Sardis, and resolved to support the Lacedemonians in opposition to the Athenians. Alcibiades, who commanded the Athenian fleet, having departed for Ionia in order to raise money, left the charge of the fleet to Antiochus; and during his absence, owing to the imprudence of Antiochus, the Athenians were defeated by Lysander.

2. The enemies of Alcibiades took advantage of this misfortune to ruin his credit in Athens. The people suspected him of treachery; and to screen himself from their resentment, the former idol of the populace was forced to seek safety by a voluntary exile in a district of the Chersonese.

3. At length, the fate of the Peloponnesian war was determined, after a contest of twenty-seven years. The Athenian fleet was totally defeated by Lysander at Ægos Potamos;* three thousand of their number were made prisoners, condemned to death by the Peloponnesian council, and murdered in cold blood.

4. Lysander visited all the seaport towns, changed their government from democracy to aristocracy, and commanded all the Athenians, upon pain of death, to retire to Athens. In that city, the inhabitants were overwhelmed with despair. They labored under the miseries of famine; they were besieged by the Spartan kings, Agis and Pausanias, by land; and the Pyreus was blocked up by the fleet of Lysander.

5. In this extremity, they were obliged to sue for peace, which was granted under the most humiliating conditions. Then Lysander, entering the Pyreus amidst the sound of trumpets, and other musical instruments, ordered the fortifications to be demolished. After which, he advanced into the city, abolished democracy, and established thirty archons, known in history by the name of the Thirty Tyrants.

6. The Peloponnesian war had thus rendered the Spartans the leading people of Greece. But Grecian glory now began to decline. Their mutual dissensions weakened their force; and their Asiatic conquests, by increasing their wealth, caused them to degenerate from their former virtue and simplicity.

7. The thirty archons ruled in Athens with a tyrannical sway. They obtained an armed guard from Lysander, and the most virtuous and influential citizens were the first victims of their cruelty. Athens became a scene of murder and rapine. One alone of their number, Theramenes, ventured to oppose the decrees of his colleagues. The tyrants, to revenge themselves upon Theramenes, caused him to be arrested and tried for his life. He was accused of disturbing the public quiet, and by the influence of Critias, the most unjust and cruel of the thirty, he was condemned to death.

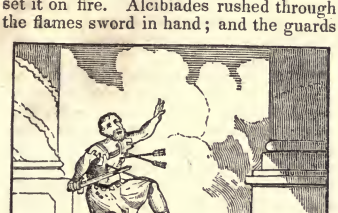
8. He received and drank the poison, by which his judges condemned him to die, with perfect calmness and fortitude. He then poured out the last drops upon the ground, as was practised in libations to the gods, with these words: 'This for the virtuous Critias.'

9. The Athenians turned their eyes for deliverance upon Alcibiades, who was living in retirement at the court of Pharnabazus. The tyrants, hearing of their intentions, signified to Lysander the necessity of getting Alcibiades into his power, in order to prevent any disturbance which he might create. Lysander accordingly de-

* That is, the *Goat's river*, a town on a river in the Thracian Chersonesus.

manded the person of the exile from Pharnabazus; and he was base enough to give orders for the apprehension of the illustrious Greek.

10. The guards who were sent to execute this order, not daring to enter his house, set it on fire. Alcibiades rushed through the flames sword in hand; and the guards



Death of Alcibiades.

as they fled from before him, discharged a shower of darts which killed him on the spot.

11. The Athenian tyrants no longer kept any measures. Every day was marked with a murder. The Athenians deserted their native city; but no state would grant them an asylum. The cities alone of Megara and Thebes were generous enough to protect the fugitives.

12. At length, by the advice of Thrasybulus, the Athenians took up arms against the tyrants, and after a fierce conflict, their power was destroyed; they themselves were massacred; the popular government was restored, and with it, tranquillity and peace.

13. In the year B. C. 401 occurred the celebrated retreat of the ten thousand Greeks, under Xenophon, from Babylon to the banks of the Euxine. The Greeks had assisted Cyrus in an attempt to dethrone his elder brother, Artaxerxes, king of Persia. Cyrus failed in the attempt, and in a battle which took place near Babylon, lost his life.

14. The Greeks found themselves reduced to the necessity of submitting to the barbarians, or of making good their retreat. They were obliged to traverse a hostile country of sixteen hundred miles in extent, exposed to dreadful hardships and incredible dangers. Their general, Clearchus, deserted them, and in this exigency, they chose as their commander Xenophon, a young Athenian.

15. Under his command they preserved the most perfect order and discipline. They were pursued by the enemy, exposed to intense cold, sometimes obliged to march through snow from five to six feet deep. They crossed the mountains of the Carducæ, after suffering repeated attacks from the inhabitants. Many of their number perished from cold and fatigue. They forded great rivers, and fought their passage over the mountains of Colchis, and at length reached the banks of the Euxine. The account of this celebrated retreat was written by Xenophon himself.

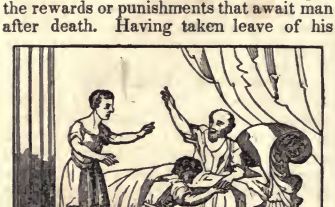
16. In this year took place the death of Socrates, the wisest and most virtuous of the Athenian philosophers. Socrates was the first who acknowledged the universe to be the work of one Supreme Being, whose attributes were infinitely superior to those of the pagan deities.

17. He drew upon himself the fury of a presumptuous and boastful sect of philosophers denominated *sophists*, by exposing the fallacy of their doctrines, and the vices of their conduct. For forty years, Socrates devoted his life to the instruction of youth, and though he kept no fixed public school, he took every opportunity, whether in the public assemblies, walks, or feasts, of inculcating his precepts. The most illustrious of the young Athenians would quit their pleasures to listen to his eloquent instructions, and to his sweet and impressive conversation.

18. Melitus, one of the sophists, at length brought a formal accusation against him. He was accused of despising the heathen gods, and of corrupting the Athenian youth. Socrates appeared before his judges with modest confidence, and pleaded his cause with a magnanimity worthy of the greatness of his soul. Yet he was declared guilty, and condemned to die by drinking the juice of hemlock. Thirty days intervened between the sentence and its execu-

tion; and this period he employed in conversing calmly with his friends.

19. An opportunity of escape was set before him by his most intimate friend Crito; but the philosopher steadily refused to take advantage of it. On the morning of his death, he discoursed with his friends upon the immortality of the soul, and upon the rewards or punishments that await man after death. Having taken leave of his



Death of Socrates.

children, he received the cup of poison, and drank it off without the smallest emotion. Then gently reproving his friends for their excessive grief, he lay down on a couch, and in a few moments expired.

CHAPTER IX.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. The Greek cities of Asia had taken part in the enterprise of the Greeks which terminated in the retreat of the ten thousand; and Sparta, being engaged to defend her countrymen, became involved in a war with Persia.

2. The disunion of the Grecian states, but above all, the hostility between the two chief republics, Athens and Sparta, rendered the war disastrous to the latter, who at length sued for peace, which was granted them under the condition of their resigning to the Persians all their colonies in Asia. This was termed the peace of Antalcides, and took place three hundred and eighty-seven years before Christ.

3. During the latter part of this period of Grecian history, Thebes had become particularly distinguished. The Spartans, who were now at the height of prosperity, endeavored to suppress the growing greatness of the Thebans, and taking advantage of a dissension which had arisen amongst them, took possession of their citadel. This was the cause of war between Thebes and Sparta.

4. At first, Athens united with Thebes; but at length, Thebes stood single in her own defence, not only against Sparta, but against the whole league of Greece. The Theban leaders were Epaminondas and Pelopidas, the most illustrious men of the age. Pelopidas, whose fortune was large, employed his wealth in charitable purposes, and devoted his time to the use of arms, and to bodily exercises.

5. Epaminondas was poor, but contented in his poverty. In his private life, he was a virtuous man, and a true philosopher; and in the discharge of his public functions, he was brave, skilful, and indefatigable. Between these two great men, the most intimate friendship subsisted. Incapable of jealousy, their sole aim was to increase the happiness and prosperity of their country.

6. The Spartans having banished Pelopidas, together with four hundred Thebans, from their native city, he exhorted them to take up arms for the recovery of their liberty. A plan was accordingly concerted by them, and communicated to their friends at Thebes. Twelve of the banished men, headed by Pelopidas, entered the city at night in the disguise of hunters, and met at the house of Charon, a distinguished Theban.

7. A feast was held that day at the house of Philidas, secretary to the chief magistrates, who were all invited to the entertainment, in order to prevent them from getting notice of the plot. In the midst of their festivity, a messenger arrived from Athens, with a packet containing an account of the conspiracy. Archias, the chief Spartan, being elevated with wine, on receiving the packet, cried out, 'Serious affairs for to-morrow,' and put it unopened under his pillow.

8. Soon after, a band of the conspirators rushed into the hall and seized the magistrates; then breaking open the prisons, proclaimed liberty. They were joined by Epaminondas at the head of a numerous band of the Theban youth. Assistance soon after arrived from the towns of Bœotia. The citadel was attacked, and the Spartan garrison were forced to capitulate.

9. The battle of Leuctra* took place in the year B. C. 371. It was fought between the Spartans and the Thebans, the former amounting to twenty-four thousand, and the latter to six thousand men. The skill of Epaminondas and the bravery of the Thebans supplied the deficiency in their numbers. The Spartans were totally defeated, and four thousand of their number killed.

10. When the news was brought to Sparta, the parents of those who were slain congratulated each other on the bravery of their children, while those who expected the return of their sons or husbands, discovered the deepest dejection. Such were the feelings of these extraordinary people, among whom humanity itself was sacrificed to patriotism.

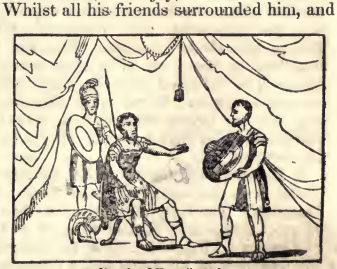
11. Eight years afterwards, the rival states came to a general engagement at Mantinea.† The Thebans, comprehending their allies, the Arcadians and Argives, amounted to thirty thousand foot, and three thousand horse. The Lacedemonians, joined with the Athenians and their other allies, amounted to twenty thousand foot, and two thousand horse. The Thebans were commanded by Epaminondas; the Spartans by their king Agesilaus, one of the most remarkable men and skilful generals of his time.

12. Though deformed, lame, and small of stature, his bravery and greatness of soul commanded universal respect. He preserved on the throne the ancient Spartan simplicity and austerity of life, and was as fond of sobriety as of military discipline. The Greeks had never, until the battle of Mantinea, fought against each other with such numerous armies, nor had they ever been commanded by abler generals.

13. The trumpets having sounded, the armies advanced to the encounter with loud shouts. For some time the result of the engagement was doubtful. The earth was drenched with the blood of the wounded, and Epaminondas resolved to make a desperate effort to decide the contest. At the head of a choice band of the bravest Thebans, he rushed impetuously into the midst of the enemy, cutting down all that opposed his progress. The centre of the Lacedemonians began to stagger and fall back. The Thebans pursued the fugitives, and at length Epaminondas found himself almost the last of his brave troop, and surrounded by the enemy. He defended himself valiantly, when an officer plunged his lance into his breast.

14. The Theban general fell, and the fury of the Thebans redoubling at the sight, they fought with such desperate valor, that the Lacedemonians at last gave way, and fled in confusion. Epaminondas was carried to the camp, and it was found that his wound was mortal.

15. On hearing this, he called for his armour-bearer, and asked whether his shield was safe. He was told that it was, and upon receiving it, he took hold of it with a smile of joy, and embraced it. Whilst all his friends surrounded him, and



Death of Epaminondas.

wept, one of them lamented that he left no children behind him, who might be some

* A village of Bœotia, between Platæa and Thespia.

† A town of Arcadia.

consolation for his loss—'You are mistaken,' said Epaminondas; 'I leave behind me two immortal daughters; the victory of Leuctra, and that of Mantinea.' The iron being then drawn from his wound, he expired with a smile of satisfaction diffused over his countenance. A peace very honorable to the Thebans, was soon afterwards concluded, in which all the states joined, excepting Sparta.

CHAPTER X.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. The Athenians, being now in the enjoyment of security and leisure, gave themselves up to pleasure and diversion. The imaginations of the people were delighted by the representation of the pieces of the most celebrated dramatic authors; they became fond of them even to extravagance. All their attention was lavished on poets and comedians. The public money was given to buffoons and singers; and to their theatrical taste they sacrificed the glory and interests of their country.

2. The Macedonians, until this period an obscure nation, resolved to profit by the lethargy and effeminacy into which the Athenians had sunk. Philip, king of Macedon, who afterwards became so celebrated, was now about twenty-four years of age. He had restored military discipline throughout his dominions, and instituted the famous Macedonian phalanx. This was a battalion in the form of a long square, having one thousand men in front, with sixteen in depth. These were all armed with spears, twenty-three feet in length, and presented a formidable and impenetrable rampart.

3. Demosthenes, the celebrated Athenian orator, was the cotemporary of Philip of Macedon. The fame of his eloquence was so great that people flocked from all parts of Greece to hear him. For some time, the weakness of his lungs and a stammering articulation had impeded his rising talents. To remove the stammering in his speech, he used to speak with pebbles in his mouth; and to strengthen his voice, he was in the habit of declaiming when climbing up steep and uneven hills, or on the seashore when the waves were agitated by a tempest. Thus by application he conquered his natural defects, and raised himself to the highest pitch of eminence.

4. In the year B. C. 356, Alexander, surnamed the Great, the son of Philip, was born. Philip instantly wrote to Aristotle, a famous philosopher of Stagira,* in these terms: 'I give you notice that I have gotten a son. I thank the gods not so much for bestowing this son upon me, as for having bestowed him in your time; for I have reason to flatter myself, that you will form for me a successor worthy of me.'

5. About this time happened the war of the Phocians, or as it is commonly called, the sacred war. The Phocians had tilled a piece of ground belonging to the temple of Apollo at Delphos. This was considered sacrilege; and the Phocians were summoned before the Amphictyons, and sentenced to pay a heavy fine. They refused to comply with the decree, and applied for assistance to the Spartans, who privately sent them succors.

6. The Amphictyons assembled, and it was decreed that war should be made on the Phocians. The Thebans, Thessalians and Locrians took part against the Phocians. The Athenians and Spartans joined the Phocians. Philip of Macedon resolved to take advantage of these internal dissensions, and to attempt the conquest of all Greece. The Thebans having implored his assistance, he seized this pretext for procuring a firm footing in Greece.

7. He was equally ambitious and artful, and he is said to have given it as his opinion that no town was impregnable which could admit a mule laden with gold. On this account, the gold of Philip is said to have conquered Greece. He had already extended his conquests on the side of Thrace, and reduced most of the cities on the coast of the Hellespont. He then laid

* A town on the outskirts of Macedonia, near the bay into which the river Strymon empties itself, at the south of Amphipolis.

siege to Alynthus,* a city possessed by an Athenian colony. They implored the assistance of the Athenians, and Demosthenes endeavored to arouse his countrymen to the danger which threatened the liberties of Greece.

8. His admonitions were neglected, and Philip entered the country of Phocis,† and forced the Phocians to sue for peace. He then by bribery contrived to have them expelled from the Amphictyonic council, and to be himself chosen in their place. He next proceeded to subdue the Athenian colonies in Thrace, and resolved to subdue the Chersonnese, a very rich and fertile peninsula, belonging to the Athenians.

9. The Spartans sent an embassy to Athens with offers of peace, and proposing a joint alliance against the king of Macedon. Demosthenes again endeavored to awaken the Athenians to a sense of their danger. His celebrated orations obtained the name of *Philippics*. At length a general engagement took place at Cheronea.‡ Philip commanded the right wing of the Macedonian army, and his son Alexander the left.

10. The engagement was long and bloody, but victory declared in favor of Philip. Transported with joy, he erected a trophy, and sacrificed to the gods. He so far forgot himself with joy, that during a great entertainment given next day in honor of the victory, he ran to the field of battle, and inhumanly insulted the slain. In the midst of his extravagance, he was reproved by an Athenian captive. Far from being offended, he was struck with remorse, and set the prisoners at liberty.

11. From the battle of Cheronea may be dated the decline of Grecian liberty. Philip was soon after nominated general of the Greeks against the Persians. But he was stopped in the midst of his warlike preparations. He fell by the hand of an assassin, as he was entering the theatre, at the celebration of the nuptials of his daughter Cleopatra, B. C. 336.

12. The news of his death spread universal joy throughout Greece, and especially at Athens, where even Demosthenes himself appeared in public with a garland of flowers, and exhorted the people to return thanks to the gods for so auspicious an event. Philip perished at the age of forty-seven, having reigned twenty-three years.

* A celebrated town and republic of Macedonia, situated on the isthmus of the peninsula of Pallene.

† A country bounded on the east by Bœotia, and by Locis on the west. Its original extent was from the bay of Corinth to the sea of Eubœa, reaching on the north as far as Thermopylæ. Its boundaries were afterwards greatly contracted.

‡ A city of Bœotia on the Cephisus, anciently called Arne.

CHAPTER XI.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. Alexander mounted the throne of Macedonia at the age of twenty; and Darius Codomanus ascended that of Persia in the same year. From his earliest years, Alexander gave proofs of a lofty mind, and of an inordinate ambition. When the news of his father's success was brought him, he would exclaim with a melancholy air, 'My friends, my father will accomplish every thing, and will leave nothing for me to do.'

2. His preceptor, Aristotle, was the greatest philosopher of that age, and the royal pupil had made astonishing progress in learning. He was so charmed with the poetry of Homer, that he slept with the volumes of the Iliad under his pillow. On one occasion, a noble war-horse, named Bucephalus, was sent from Thessaly to Philip; but it was so fiery and unmanageable that no one ventured to mount it. Alexander alone had the courage to make the attempt, and in the presence of the king and his courtiers, he mounted Bucephalus, and tamed the fiery animal.

3. As he returned from finishing the course in which he had subdued this ungovernable horse, Philip exclaimed with rapture, 'Seek, my son, another kingdom; Macedonia is not worthy to contain you.' We are told that Bucephalus would after this never suffer any one but Alexander to mount him. He would kneel down to re-

ceive him on his back. In battle, after being mortally wounded, he saved the life of the hero, by carrying him through a

Alexander taming Bucephalus.

crowd of enemies, and then expired. His death was mourned with tears by his master, who even built a city in his memory, on the banks of the Hydaspes, which he named after him, Bucephalia.

4. The states of Greece formed a confederacy against the new king of Macedon. The Thebans revolted, and slew the Macedonian garrison. Alexander advanced at the head of his troops to the pass of Thermopylæ, entered Bœotia, took the city of Thebes, and treated the inhabitants with the utmost rigor of war. More than thirty thousand were sold for slaves; and none permitted to escape but the priests and the descendants of the poet Pindar.

5. Every thing now gave way before the conqueror; and even the Athenians, with Demosthenes himself, sent a deputation to implore mercy. He forgave them, and having assembled all the states at Corinth, he was solemnly elected commander-in-chief of the Greeks against Persia. It was at this time that Alexander, surprised at not being visited by Diogenes, the famous cynic philosopher, went himself to pay him a visit. He found this singular man sitting in a tub, which served as his house, and dressed in the extreme of poverty. Alexander asked Diogenes whether he wanted any thing. 'Yes,' said the cynic, 'I want you to remove from between me and the sunbeams.' Alexander, struck by so independent a spirit, turned to his courtiers and exclaimed, 'Were I not Alexander, I should wish to be Diogenes.'

6. Alexander set out for Asia in the beginning of spring, in the year B. C. 334. His army amounted to thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. Parmenio commanded the foot, and Philotas part of the horse. At Ilium, he celebrated public games to the memory of Achilles, and caused them to be performed round the tomb of the hero. Arrived at the Granicus,* they found the Persian army drawn up on the opposite side, amounting to one hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand horse, and commanded by Memnon the Rhodian.

7. A battle was fought, in which the Persians were totally routed, and lost twenty thousand of their foot, and two thousand five hundred horse. Alexander lost only two hundred men, and sent to the Athenians three hundred Persian bucklers in token of his victory. Sardis and Ephesus† now opened their gates to the conqueror, and many princes of Asia Minor, among whom was Mithridates, king of Pontus,‡ submitted to him.

8. Alexander, having subdued Cappadocia,§ advanced towards the higher Asia, and arrived at Tarsus.‖ Struck with the clearness of the water of the river Cydnus, which flows by that city, he resolved to bathe in it. He had hardly entered the water when he was seized with an extreme chillness, and was conveyed to his tent in a state of insensibility. A violent illness ensued; his life was despaired of, and the physicians, knowing that Darius had offered one thousand talents to any one who would take the life of Alexander, dreaded to take

* A river of Bithynia.

† A city of Ionia, famous for its temple of Diana, which was burned on the night that Alexander was born.

‡ A kingdom of Asia Minor, bounded on the east by Colchis, west by Halys, north by the Euxine sea, and south by part of Armenia.

§ A country of Asia Minor, between the Halys, the Euphrates, and the Euxine. It receives its name from the river Cappadox, which divides it from Galatia.

‖ Now *Taressa*, a town of Cilicia.

the responsibility of giving him any remedies.

9. In this emergency his confidential physician, Philip, offered to give him a draught which should quickly relieve him; but in the mean time, Alexander was thrown into the greatest perplexity by the receipt of a letter informing him that Philip was bribed by Darius to destroy him. After some consideration he took the draught, and steadfastly regarding Philip, drank it off. His recovery was speedy, and the joy of his soldiers proportionable to their previous dejection.

CHAPTER XII.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. Meanwhile, Darius with his immense army advanced to meet Alexander, and the two armies came in sight of each other near the river Issus,* between the mountains and the sea. The march of the Persian monarch resembled a royal procession. We are told that the Persian troops called the Immortal, and ten thousand in number, were dressed in cloth of gold; that the chariot of Jupiter was drawn by white horses, and accompanied by three hundred and sixty-five young boys, clothed in purple: and that the king himself, mounted on his lofty chariot, was radiant with gold and jewels. His wives and children, also sumptuously appointed, accompanied the army.

2. Alexander rode through the ranks, encouraging his men, reminding them of their recent victories, and assuring them that one victory would make them masters of Persia. He reminded them of Marathon, Thermopylæ, and Salamis; and as he spoke, the whole army called aloud to be led on to the engagement.

3. The right wing of the Macedonians, commanded by Alexander, plunged into the river Issus, and advanced to the charge. The horses that drew the chariot of Darius being wounded, reared, and broke loose from the yoke. Darius sprung from his chariot, mounted another, fled, and was followed by the whole right wing of his army. After a bloody engagement, the Persians took flight in all directions, and the Macedonians took possession of the camp of Darius, in which were his mother and his wife, together with his infant children.

4. The young conqueror, after visiting the wounded, and commending the valor of his troops, went to pay a visit to the Persian princesses in their tent, accompanied by his favorite, Hephestion. The ladies, mistaking the favorite for the king himself, threw themselves at his feet. Sisigambis, the mother of Darius, on being informed of her mistake, was beginning to excuse herself; on which Alexander raised her from the ground, exclaiming, 'My dear mother, you are not mistaken, for he is likewise Alexander.'

5. Nothing could exceed the generous treatment of Alexander towards the princesses. To alleviate their misfortunes, he studied to bestow upon them every mark of respect and kindness; and taking the infant son of Darius in his arms, he embraced him with fondness. Darius fled till he arrived at Thapsacus,* from which he despatched a haughty letter to Alexander, who returned one in the same strain.

6. Alexander, having arrived at Phœnicia, the Sidonians paid homage to him; and the city of Tyre† alone refused to admit him as their master. Tyre was then the most flourishing city in the world, the centre of commerce, and the mistress of the East. Alexander resolved to lay siege to Tyre. After seven months of incredible labor, the city was taken and destroyed. The conqueror cruelly ordered two thousand of the inhabitants to be crucified along the seashore, and the rest to be sold for slaves.

7. He then continued his victorious progress through Palestine, where all the towns

* On the confines of Syria.

* A city on the Euphrates.

† Built on a small island at the south of Sidon, about two hundred stadia from the shore. There were properly two places of that name, the old Tyros, called *Palætyros*, on the seashore and the island. It was about nineteen miles in circumference, including Palætyros; without it, but four.

excepting Gaza* surrendered. It shared the fate of Tyre. Having marched against Jerusalem, he was surprised to meet a solemn procession, headed by Jaddus the high priest, clothed in his pontifical vestments, advancing to receive him. Alexander saluted the high priest with respect, and having entered Jerusalem, proceeded to the temple, where the high priest pointed out to him those passages in Daniel's prophecies which related to him.

8. In Egypt, Alexander was received with joy; and here he founded Alexandria, which afterwards became one of the most flourishing cities in the world. He then passed through the burning deserts of Lybia, on a visit to the temple of Jupiter Ammon. The chief priest hailed him as the son of Jupiter; and Alexander henceforward had the extravagance to assume the title of son of Jupiter Ammon.

9. The next battle which took place between Alexander and Darius was fought at Arbela,† in Assyria. The victory, notwithstanding the superior numbers of the Persian army, soon decided in favor of Alexander; and Darius once more took to flight, abandoning every thing to the victor. B. C. 331.

10. Having taken possession of Arbela, Alexander proceeded to Babylon,‡ and entered triumphantly at the head of his army. The walls were thronged with spectators; the roads were strewed with flowers; and exquisite perfumes burned on numerous altars.

11. At Persepolis, the fountain of eastern luxury, he found in the royal treasury sixteen millions of pounds sterling. During his stay there, he gave a grand entertainment. In the height of their festivity, an Athenian, named Thais, having declared that she would consider it a great happiness to set fire herself to the palace of Xerxes, the whole company, with Alexander at their head, seized burning torches, rushed out, and reduced to ashes one of the most splendid buildings in the world.

Alexander and Thais setting fire to the palace.

12. A conspiracy was formed against Darius by Bessus, satrap of Bactriana, and Darius was taken prisoner. Alexander instantly marched to his relief, upon which Bessus caused the Persian monarch to be assassinated. The advanced guard of Alexander's army, found Darius lying in his chariot, in a retired spot, alone, and mortally wounded. The unfortunate monarch had strength left to ask for water, which having been brought him, he begged the Macedonians to assure Alexander of his gratitude for his kindness to his mother, his wife, and children; and having prayed to the gods to bless with victory so generous a conqueror, he expired. When Alexander saw the dead body of Darius, he was moved to tears; and having caused it to be embalmed, he sent the body to Sisigambis, that it

Death of Darius.

* A city of Philistia, near the Mediterranean sea.

† Situated on the river Lycus.

‡ On the banks of the Euphrates.

might be interred with the usual honors paid to the deceased kings of Persia.

CHAPTER XIII.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. Alexander then marched through the north of Asia, and reached the Caspian sea. He then returned to Bactriana, where he assumed the dress and manners of the Persians. About this time, he cruelly caused his general Parmenio, who had grown gray in his service, to be assassinated, on suspicion of a pretended conspiracy.

2. He soon after seized the traitor Bessus, and caused him to be sent to Ecbatana,* where he was put to death. At Maracanda, he killed his favorite Clitus in a fit of passion, being exasperated by the reproaches of Clitus, who accused him of having become a tyrant, and reproached him for having slain Parmenio. The remorse of Alexander for this action was so great, that he remained for days stretched on the floor in an agony of grief, weeping, and refusing all sustenance.

3. In the country of the Sacæ, Alexander married Roxana, daughter of their king Oxiartes. She was a lady of singular beauty and talent; but the marriage gave much offence to the Macedonians. Giddy with conquest, the ambition of Alexander now knew no bounds. He penetrated into India, which was accounted the richest country in the world. He passed the Indus, and advanced to the Hydaspes, the passage of which was disputed by one of the kings named Porus.

4. Alexander conquered and took him prisoner; but afterwards, struck with admiration by his undaunted magnanimity, he restored him his kingdom. Still resolved to push forward, he prepared to pass the Hypherses, when the murmurs of his troops obliged him to return. Arrived at the confines of Persia, he affected to imitate Bacchus, and made a triumphal progress through Carmania,* mounted on a chariot, and feasting sumptuously.

5. The whole country resounded with music and bacchanalian songs, and large casks of wine were placed along the road, of which the soldiers and people drank in profusion. At Ecbatana, he continued to celebrate feasts and games, and abandoned himself to pleasures and excess. Here his favorite Hephestion died, and was mourned by Alexander as a brother. He celebrated his funeral obsequies at Babylon with a magnificence almost incredible, and then offered sacrifices to him as a god.

6. He proceeded to beautify Babylon, and proposed making it the seat of empire, when the hand of death put a stop to all his vast projects. After a feast where he had drank to excess, he was seized with a fever, which terminated mortally. When at the point of dissolution, he was asked to whom he left his empire. 'To the most worthy,' said he, and expired. He was then thirty-two years of age, and had reigned twelve years: B. C. 323. He died equally regretted by the Macedonians and Persians. His empire extended from the Indus to Lybia, and from the Asiatic to the Caspian.

* Now Hamadan, the capital of Media, and palace of Dejoces, king of Media.

CHAPTER XIV.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. Upon the death of Alexander, his conquests were divided among thirty-three of his principal generals; but at length, four of these officers obtained the whole. Egypt, Lybia, Palestine, and Arabia were assigned to Ptolemy; whose successors, named the Ptolemies, reigned there for two centuries. Cassander became king of Macedonia and Greece; Lysimachus, of Thrace and Bithynia; and the remaining territories, including the kingdom of Syria and the region extending from it to the Indus, were given to Seleucus. The kings of Syria are known in history as the Seleucidæ.

2. On hearing of the death of Alexander,

* A country between Persia and India.

Demosthenes made one more effort to restore freedom in his country. He endeavored by his eloquence to rouse his countrymen to shake off the Macedonian yoke, but in vain. The ancient spirit which animated the Greeks, was now nearly extinct, and they listened to the councils of Phocion, which were for pacific measures.

3. Antipater, who for some time after the death of Alexander governed Greece, demanded that Demosthenes should be delivered into his hands. On hearing of this, Demosthenes put an end to his life by poison: B. C. 322.

4. Phocion, one of the most virtuous and eminent men of Greece, had been chosen general of the Athenian armies forty-five times. Yet, upon some vague and ill-founded suspicion, his ungrateful countrymen condemned him to death.

5. When about to swallow the dose of poison by which he was sentenced to die, one of his friends begged to know what message he should convey to his son. 'Tell him,' said Phocion, 'to pardon the injustice of the Athenians.' This virtuous man was upwards of eighty years old when he died. The Athenians, afterwards struck with a sense of their injustice, erected a statue of brass to his memory.

6. From the death of Alexander until their subjugation by the Romans, the history of the Grecian states presents nothing but a series of uninteresting revolutions. The last effort of liberty in Greece was the Achaian league, by which the smaller states, with Achaia at their head, united together for their mutual protection: B. C. 281.

7. For a period of forty years, during which this league subsisted, it served in some measure as a barrier against the Macedonian power. It did not, however, effect much, until Aratus, by his wise counsels, gave greater force to its operations. Aratus was the son of Nicias, one of the principal citizens of Sicyon, and when only twenty years of age, effected the freedom of his country, which had long groaned under the tyranny of Nicocles.

8. He persuaded the Sicyonians to accede to the Achaian league, and being chosen general of the Achaians, recovered from Antigonus the citadel of Corinth, of which that prince had taken possession. It was about this period that the Roman name began to become celebrated, even in Greece.

9. Aratus, having taken Acro-Corinth and Megara from the Macedonians, united them to the Achaians. He also persuaded the cities of Megalopolis, Epidaurus, and Trezene, to unite with them. His great object was to unite the whole of Peloponnesus in one republic, and for that purpose he next directed his efforts towards Lacedæmon.

10. A great change had taken place in Sparta since the period when Lycurgus had established his laws there. Avarice and luxury had obtained a footing amongst them, and the Spartan character had greatly degenerated from its former severe simplicity. Agis, king of Sparta, a prince of a mild and irresolute character, endeavored to reform the abuses which had gradually crept into the state, and to restore the laws of Lycurgus. Agesilaus, one of the principal citizens, opposed his views, and Leonidas, the other king, endeavored to accomplish the ruin of Agis. He was brought to trial, and condemned to death as a traitor to his country, B. C. 244.

11. Upon the death of Leonidas, his son, Cleomenes, ascended the throne. He also attempted a reform in the government, and having, by several successful expeditions against the Achaians, greatly advanced his authority at Sparta, he no longer hesitated in taking bolder measures. He diminished the power of the ephori, applied himself to restore the laws of Lycurgus, and by the simplicity and frugality of his own way of life, gained the confidence and esteem of the citizens.

12. Having gained an important victory over the Achaians, he compelled them to sue for peace, and consented to grant it, only on condition of his being chosen commander-in-chief of the forces of the league. Aratus, affronted by this proposal, applied for assistance to Antigonus, who rejoiced at the opportunity thus afforded him of extending his authority in Greece.

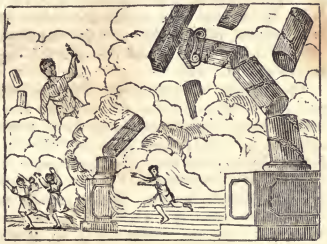
13. He advanced with a large army to the assistance of the Achaians, and defeat

ed Cleomenes in the neighborhood of Salasia. He owed his victory, in a great measure, to the courage of Philopœmen, yet a very young man, who fought at the head of the Achaian cavalry. Cleomenes, unable to endure the sight of his country's misfortune, set sail for Egypt. Antigonus, arriving at Sparta, took possession of it as a conqueror. He treated the inhabitants with kindness, but overturned every thing done by Cleomenes for reviving the institutions of Lycurgus.

CHAPTER XV.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. About this time, a dreadful earthquake happened at Rhodes,* which did immense



Earthquake at Rhodes.

damage, and threw down the famous brazen Colossus. The Rhodians, finding themselves reduced to ruin by this disaster, implored assistance of the neighboring princes. Large sums of money were sent them by the kings of Sicily and Egypt, as well as by Antigonus, Seleucus, and Mithridates.

2. The Etolians, the most hardy and unpolished people of Greece, taking advantage of the exhausted condition of the Peloponnesus, carried their arms into the territory of Messene, and committed great ravages there. Upon this, Aratus marched against them, but being defeated, he applied for assistance to Philip, king of Macedonia, who had ascended the throne on the death of his father Antigonus.

3. Philip immediately made preparations for attacking the Etolians. Success attended his arms, and growing haughty by repeated conquests, he began to treat his allies with insupportable pride. Aratus, having remonstrated with him upon his conduct, was basely poisoned by his command.

4. The most remarkable character of this period was Philopœmen. He obtained the glorious appellation of the 'last of the Greeks.' He was a native of Megalopolis in Arcadia. He was at once a philosopher and a warrior, and while he took Epaminondas for his model, he devoted his private hours to the study of Homer. Being appointed general of the Achaians, he endeavored to restore discipline among the troops, and to check the growing taste for luxury and magnificence observable in Athens. Finding a complete reform in this particular impossible, he endeavored at least to direct their expensive taste to warlike objects—to the purchase of fine horses, superb arms, lofty plumes, and embroidered coats of mail; while in his own appearance he observed a remarkable simplicity.

5. He defeated the Lacedemonians, and with his own hand killed their king, Machanides. A statue of brass was erected in honor of Philopœmen in consequence of this victory. Having entered the theatre during the celebration of the Nemean games, just as the musician Pylades was saying the following line to his lyre,

'The palm of liberty for Greece I won,'

the whole audience rose up, and with shouts of applause turned towards Philopœmen.

6. Sparta at this time was governed by the tyrant Nabis, who, prompted by insatiable avarice, banished the rich citizens, or put them to the torture, in order to obtain their wealth. The Athenians, finding their tranquillity disturbed by the ambitious and turbulent spirit of king Philip, sent deputies to

* A celebrated island in the Carpathian sea, one hundred and twenty miles in circumference, at the south of Caria, from which it is twenty miles distant. It has been known by the several names of Ophinsa, Stadia, Telchinis, Corymbia, Trinacria, Æthria, Asteria, Poessa, Atabyria, Oloessa, Marcta, and Pelasgia.

Rome complaining of his conduct. The Romans declared war against Philip, and were joined by the Etolians.

7. King Philip and Quintius, surnamed Flaminius, came to an engagement in Thessaly. Here the Romans gained a complete victory over Philip, who was forced to sue for peace. Ten commissioners were named by the Roman senate for settling the conditions of the treaty. These were, that all the Greek cities, whether in Europe or Asia, should be declared free; that Philip should withdraw his garrisons —should deliver up to the Romans his prisoners and deserters—should pay them one thousand talents—and should send his son Demetrius to Rome as an hostage.

8. This decree, being read aloud by a herald at the celebration of the Isthmian games, was followed by deafening shouts of applause from the assembled multitude. The whole assembly were vehement in their thanks to Quintius, the Roman general, whom they regarded as their deliverer. Some knelt and kissed his hands, and others crowned him with garlands of flowers, while all were loud in extolling the glory of the Roman name.

9. Soon after, the Roman general defeated the tyrant Nabis, and forced him to sue for peace. The Messenians, having renounced the Achaian league, resolved to take possession of Corona. Philopœmen, though seventy years of age, took the field against them. His troops were defeated,

Death of Philopœmen.

and he himself was taken prisoner, conducted to Messene in chains, and condemned to die by poison. The 'last of the Greeks' submitted without complaint to his sentence, and having drank off the poison, expired without a murmur: B. C. 183.

10. The power and credit of the Achaian league began to excite the jealousy of the Roman senate. In order to weaken their influence, they endeavored to foment divisions amongst its members; while the Achaians became careless of the Roman friendship, and by their want of prudence, hurried to their irretrievable ruin.

11. The Romans determined to make war against the Achaians, and sent Mummius against them at the head of a considerable army. Mummius advanced to Corinth, gave battle to the Achaians in the isthmus, overpowered and put them to flight. Then Mummius entering the city, gave it up to be pillaged, put the men to the sword, and sold the women and children for slaves. He then gave orders for the removal of the statues and paintings, set fire to the houses, and reduced the city to ashes, B. C. 146.

12. Among the pictures found in Corinth, was one of Bacchus, executed by the celebrated Aristides, and valued at three thousand two hundred pounds sterling. This was sent to Rome, and placed in the temple of Ceres. We are told that the Roman general, in order to impress the necessity of carefulness upon the minds of those persons employed in transporting to Rome the Corinthian statues and paintings, assured them, that if any of them were spoiled or missing, they should be obliged to furnish new ones at their own expense.

13. The history of Greece now drew rapidly to a close. Commissioners were sent from Rome, to abolish the popular form of government, and to create magistrates dependent on the Roman commonwealth. For some time, the Greeks were left in the full enjoyment of their liberty and laws.

14. But at last, Greece was reduced to a Roman province, and was governed by a prætor, sent from Rome, and elected annually. Thenceforth, it bore the name of the province of Achaia. Greece, though

stripped of her power, still retained her empire in the sciences and arts. Thither the most illustrious of her conquerors repaired for instruction. Athens remained the school of learning, the standard of taste and refinement, and the central point in the republic of letters. The emperors invited the Grecian philosophers to their court, and even when Rome herself had fallen from her greatness, Greece still preserved her intellectual sovereignty.

CHAPTER XVI.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. Greece was a region of extreme beauty; its lakes, rivers, and majestic mountains, each endeared by a thousand associations, its haunted woods and groves, its thousand fairy isles, marked it as a fit dwelling place for taste and intellectual greatness. Considering the intimate connection between nature and art, we are not surprised that in this lovely country, architecture, painting, music, sculpture and poetry should have arrived at such a pitch of perfection.

2. The city of Athens has already been briefly described; but a more minute description may not be wholly uninteresting. It was situated about five miles from the sea, in a large plain, from the centre of which rose a hill named the Acropolis, an upper city. There was also a lower city, and both divisions contained four hundred and forty thousand inhabitants, of whom a large majority were slaves. The city, at the zenith of its prosperity, was twenty-five miles in circumference.

3. The upper city, sixteen miles in circumference, was girted by a strong wall pierced by nine gates. The main entrance was reached by means of a white marble staircase. The lower city, containing the buildings encompassing the citadel, was protected by strong walls. The temple of Neptune, and the beautiful temple of Minerva, called the Parthenon, both remain to the present day, and the latter is esteemed as the most perfect specimen extant of the finest and purest style of Grecian architecture. It is two hundred and twenty-nine feet long, one hundred and one broad, and sixty-nine high. Athens contained some of the most splendid works ever produced by art.

4. Sparta, Thebes, and Corinth were noted for architectural beauty. The Spartans, averse to ornament and ostentation in private life, yet decorated their forum, or great central square, with statues and beautiful edifices. Corinth, the capital of Achaia, produced the beautiful column called the Corinthian pillar, whose ornamental style is justly admired.

5. The age of Pericles, about four hundred and thirty years B. C. may be considered as that in which architecture, painting and sculpture flourished most. The architecture of the Greeks consisted of three orders,—the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian. The Doric was characterized by plainness, but at the same time its effect was sublime. The Ionic was extremely graceful and elegant. The Corinthian, uniting the beauties of the other orders, was rich, magnificent, and highly ornamental.

6. The ancient Greek statues which have fortunately descended to us, will ever remain models to the artists, and imperishable sources of admiration to the man of taste. From the beauty of the mere casts, those who have never seen the originals of the Venus, the dying Gladiator, and the Laocoon, may form some idea of their wonderful excellence.

7. The Venus is a statue presenting in the unshrouded form of the goddess of love, an union of all the traits of female loveliness. Its beauty is more than mortal; the eye gazes unwearied on the face and figure, and the mind hardly realizes that it is of stone. The dying Gladiator depicts a strong man on the eve of death, rousing his waning strength to support himself. The sinking of the muscular system may be observed.

8. The group of Laocoon and his sons is highly grand and beautiful. The story which it illustrates is this: Laocoon, high-priest of Apollo, having incurred the displeasure of the gods, was attacked and

strangled while preparing to offer sacrifice, by two enormous serpents, which issued from the sea. The sculptor has represented Laocoon and his two sons struggling in the crushing embraces of the enormous reptiles. The immense strength of the high-priest contrasts finely with the yielding and weak forms of the two lovely boys.

9. No specimens of the painting of the Greeks have reached us. Ancient writers, however, described it as in nothing inferior to their sculpture, and we have every reason to believe that they excelled in that, as in other departments of the fine arts. Zeuxis, Apelles, and Parrhasius have been particularly praised.

10. Zeuxis and Parrhasius were good-humored rivals, and used frequently to enter into contests with each other to decide the superiority of one. Zeuxis painted a basket full of grapes with such truth to nature, that the birds flew to the painting and endeavored to eat the fruit. Parrhasius painted a linen cloth hanging in natural folds, and so successfully did he achieve the work, that Zeuxis, on being taken before it, requested the artist to remove the cloth and show him his picture. On being made aware of the deception, he exclaimed, 'You have conquered, Parrhasius,—I misled birds, but you have deceived an artist.'

CHAPTER XVII.

GREECE—CONTINUED.

1. The Athenians were divided into three classes: citizens, foreigners or sojourners, and slaves. The citizens were the most privileged class. They alone were eligible to office, and the right of citizenship was only conferred by an assembly of the people, although it was inherited by children from parents who had been citizens. The citizens were divided into ten tribes, whose residence was not limited to Athens. The surrounding boroughs of Attica contained some tribes. Each tribe bore the name of some ancient hero, and was divided into three parts; each of these parts being again subdivided into thirty families.

2. Persons coming from foreign countries to reside in Attica were termed sojourners. They were under the protection of the law, and permitted to pursue their business in Athens; but except in case of rendering important services to the state, they were not admitted to the right of voting, or made eligible to any office by participating in the rights of citizenship.

3. The slaves were of two sorts. The first were freeborn citizens, on whom poverty had imposed the necessity of serving masters for wages. These people gained their liberty on acquiring the means of procuring subsistence. The second class were entirely at the disposal of their masters, and generally had no hope of redeeming themselves, or of procuring freedom for their children. Sometimes by fighting for the state or by their savings, slaves were enabled to purchase their freedom.

4. The Athenian magistrates were of three kinds, distinguished by the manner of their election. 1st. The Chirotoneti, who were chosen in a lawful assembly by the people, who expressed their votes on these occasions by holding up their hands. 2d. The Cleroti, who after receiving the approval of the people, were selected by lot. 3d. The Ereti, who were officers appointed by particular tribes, and invested with peculiar authority to transact any business.

5. Poorer citizens were eligible to office, but men of distinguished rank only were appointed. Some few exceptions occur. Every candidate was obliged to appear in the forum and give an account of his past life. While in office, any magistrate could be brought to trial for a neglect of the duties of his office, and at the expiration of his term of service, was made to give an account of his conduct. Thirty days were allowed for accusation, and during this period any man could bring a charge of mal-administration against a magistrate.

6. The government of Athens was usually administered by the archons, nine in number, the senate of five hundred, and the assemblies of the people. The archons, having the executive power, were elected

annually by lot. They wore wreaths of myrtle, their persons were held inviolable, and they were also exempted from the payment of some taxes. The first was called archon by way of distinction. His duty was to decide on cases between married persons, also on matters of divorce, inheritance, and other important concerns. He was the general guardian of orphans.

7. The second archon wore a crown, and was called basileus, or king. The third archon was styled polemarch; the remaining six, thesmothetæ. They had the general direction of the republic and the execution of the laws in their hands. Minor police regulations were committed to subordinate officers. The senate of five hundred, who were annually chosen by lot from the different tribes, had great power. They examined proposals which were to be submitted to the people, and took care that nothing unimportant or improper should come before them. They discussed measures of public importance. To them were submitted the accounts of the magistrates. The direction of the fleet was in the hands of the senate, as well as the punishment of offences not noticed by the laws.

8. Assemblies of the people were for the purpose of discussing measures for the welfare of the commonwealth. All Athenian freemen had a right to attend; but strangers, slaves, women, and those who had received an infamous punishment, were excluded. The assemblies were regularly held every thirty-five days, and also convened in any great emergency.

9. No fewer than six thousand citizens could legally compose an assembly. They decided upon peace or war, gave audience to ambassadors, confirmed or repealed laws, &c. In these assemblies, the orators of Athens exercised their influence.

10. The court called Areopagus was an assembly which took an active part in the government. It was called Areopagus or Mars hill, from the spot on which it was held. The members behaved with the greatest solemnity and power. The court took cognizance of all crimes in religion or government, and also examined the state of the laws and of public manners.

11. Much mention being made of ostracism in ancient history, it may be well to explain it here. An assembly of the people being held, each one wrote the name of the person most obnoxious to him on a shell (*ostrakon*) and deposited it in a portion of the market-place provided for the purpose. If the shells amounted to six thousand, the ostracism was effective; if not, void. The archons laid together the shells containing the name of one individual, and the citizen whose name occurred most frequently was banished for ten years, with leave to enjoy his estate. Thus many excellent citizens, without even a specified offence, were sacrificed to the capricious spleen of the Athenians.

12. There were two classes of Spartan citizens, the Homoii and the Hypomiones. The former were eligible to office; but the latter, being composed of poor citizens, the freedmen and their sons, were merely permitted the right of voting at elections. The Helots, or slaves, far outnumbered the citizens. Their duties did not greatly differ from those imposed on servants in other parts of Greece, but were less severe.

13. The two Spartan kings every month took an oath to keep the laws. To one was committed the command of the army, while the other usually remained at home with civil authority. The kings, as first citizens, presided in the senate, but their peculiar province was to regulate the observances of religion. The senate was composed of twenty-eight members, inclusive of the kings. They were above sixty years of age, were elected for life and on account of their virtue. They examined all subjects connected with peace and war, and had the direction of the most important public concerns.

14. The Ephori were annual magistrates, five in number, chosen by the people, and whose duty it was to examine into the state of education and the administration of justice. Of the two assemblies of the people to decide on matters submitted to them by the senate, the first, called the general assembly, was attended by all the freemen of Laconia; the second, or lesser

assembly, only by Spartans over thirty years of age.

15. The other states of Greece were principally governed by a republican form. The Amphictyonic council was an assembly composed at first of deputies from a few northern states of Greece, but afterwards, of delegates from twelve. They decided upon all questions connected with differences between cities, and they tried all offences committed in violation of the rights of nations. Each state sent two deputies. The assemblies were semi-annual. The vernal assembly was held at Delphi, the autumnal at Thermopylæ.

16. The Grecian armies were composed of citizens whom the law obliged, in obedience to the summons of a magistrate, to appear prepared to do military duty, at a certain age. The largest division of army consisted of infantry; there were also horsemen, soldiers in chariots, and on elephants. The arms were at first brazen, the boots and some other portions being of tin. Iron was afterwards the predominant material.

17. The defensive armor consisted of a helmet and breast-plate, a back-piece, greaves to defend the legs, guards to protect the hands, a kind of belt to cover the front part of the body, and a shield. The offensive weapons were the spear, the sword, the pole-axe, an iron or wooden club, bows and arrows, darts, javelins and slings. The severest punishments were inflicted upon cowards. In Lacedæmon, they forfeited the rights of citizenship; it was a disgrace to intermarry with them, they might be beaten like slaves without being permitted to return a blow, and they were forced to wear a distinguishing dress. Archilochus the poet was banished from Sparta, for having facetiously related the loss of his shield in an epigram.

18. The Greek vessels were of three sorts: ships of passage, ships of war, and ships of burthen. Ships of passage were transports; ships of burthen were used as tenders, and were generally of a round form; ships of war were filled with troops and weapons by which naval engagements were carried on. They differ from each other in the various number of their banks of oars. These were not ranged vertically over each other, but ascending like stairs back of each other. The war-galleys had high, carved beaks or rostrums.

19. The mythology of the Greeks, which varied but little from that of the Romans, will be comprehended in a general view of ancient mythology at the end of that portion of this history devoted to Rome.

CHAPTER XVIII.

GREECE—CONCLUDED.

1. The answers of oracles exercised the greatest influence upon the conduct of the Greeks, since the most implicit belief was placed in them. The presiding priests and priestesses pretended to divine inspiration; filled with a frenzied spirit, they uttered ravings which were regarded as the words of a deity. By making use of words and phrases which admitted of a double meaning, the priests always managed to keep up a show of truth in their answers. The oracles of Apollo at Delphi and Delos, the oracle of Jupiter at Dodona, and of Trebonius, were the most celebrated.

2. The public games of Greece, in which, besides contests in athletic sports and exercises, musicians, poets, artists and philosophers struggled for victory, were very celebrated. They were four in number,—the Olympic, Pythian, Isthmian and Nemean.

3. Hercules instituted the Olympic games in honor of Jupiter Olympus, twelve hundred and twenty-two years B. C. They were discontinued for a long period, and renewed by Lycurgus eight hundred and eighty-four years B. C., and then by Corœ bus seven hundred and seventy-six years B. C. The last date is the era of the first Olympiad. An Olympiad is the space (of four years) between one celebration of the Olympic games and another; this was the method in which the Greek computation of time was made. The reward of the victors was a crown of laurel.

4. The Pythian games were celebrated

every fifth year at Delphi, in honor of Apollo, who killed the serpent Python, and was thence called Pythian. The Nemean games were celebrated every third year at Nemea. They were instituted by Hercules. The victor's crown was of parsley. Near the isthmus of Corinth, the Isthmian games occurred, first every third, finally every fifth year. The victors at these games were presented with garlands of pine-leaves.

5. In literature the Greeks have surpassed all ancient and modern nations. The alphabet was brought into Greece by Cadmus, fifteen hundred and nineteen years B. C. Poetry was cultivated in Greece before the invention of letters, and Greece has produced poets whose writings will never be forgotten. How many bright names congregate on that page of Grecian history which records the triumphs of her poetry!

6. Here we behold Homer, the master of epic poetry, and Hesiod, the moral Anacreon, whose music is immortal; Sappho the poetess, whose songs and whose love are on the lips and in the minds of all; Pindar, fanciful and striking, have made the world echo the praises of their lyrics. Among the Greek dramatists, Æschylus is wild and terrific, Euripides touches the strings of tenderness and affection, Sophocles is pure, grand and impressive, and Menander elegant. The pastorals of Theocritus are models of that kind of poetry.

7. Greece also produced the most eloquent orators. Thucydides, Isocrates and Demosthenes will forever live in the annals of oratory, as the most distinguished. In the department of history, Herodotus and Xenophon were eminent.

8. The philosophers of Greece arose from the rhapsodists or reciters of the poems of Homer and others at the public games; they established schools of philosophy which afterwards multiplied amazingly, and were much frequented. The sects were distinguished by peculiarities of belief. Pythagoras, Plato, Aristotle, Zeno, Epicurus, and Socrates, among others, were noted philosophers. The doctrines of Aristotle reigned in the schools for sixteen hundred years.

9. The Greek men wore an under garment called tunic, over which they cast a mantle; their sandals were secured to the soles of their feet by thongs or ropes laced round them. The women wore a long tunic flowing from the waist (to which it was confined tightly by a sash) to the feet. Over this they wore a short robe bordered at the bottom with colored stripes, and confined at the waist by a ribbon. They sometimes threw a robe over this, which they wore gathered into folds.

10. The early Grecians wore no covering upon their heads; but, in after-times, they had hats which tied beneath the chin. The females always had their heads covered. The Athenians wore in their hair grasshoppers made of gold, as emblems of the antiquity of their nation, boasting that they sprang from the earth. The Spartan kings and magistrates were little distinguished by dress. The military garments were scarlet. The Greeks valued scarlet much, and purple still more.

11. The Greeks had four meals; they breakfasted at sunrise, dined at noon, in the afternoon made another repast, and finished with supper, which was the principal meal of the day, being taken after their business was over.

12. Convivial entertainments were at first given as acts of public devotion, but were afterwards used in private life. Sometimes a city, tribe, or families met together at a political feast. The Greeks drank water and wine. Spiced wines were common at the tables of rich people. Hot bathing, anointing the body and changing of clothes, were the usual preludes to a feast. Men and women were never invited together. At first, guests sat erect at table; but couches, for a recumbent posture, were introduced as luxury advanced.

13. It was necessary for parties wishing to marry to obtain the consent of parents, without which they were unlawful. Loss of esteem, and sometimes punishment, accompanied a refusal to enter into the connubial state. Polygamy was permitted in times of great calamity, such as an exterminating war, or pestilence. Socrates, on this account, took a second wife.

14. The Grecian women rarely appeared in strange company; they were confined in remote parts of the house, and permitted no male visitors. Abroad, their faces were studiously concealed by veils, and to be abroad much was considered a disgrace.

15. Children were exposed from deformity or weakness in some parts of Greece. All children were obliged to maintain their parents, except those children whose parents had not brought them up to some useful employment.

16. The solemnities attending the burial of the dead were many, and considered of the utmost importance. The most dreadful imprecation, in the view of a Greek, was to wish that a person might not receive the honors of a funeral.

CHAPTER XIX.

ROME.

1. Little is accurately known concerning the origin of the Roman empire; and the various accounts of its early history which have been transmitted us are evidently fictitious. The Romans, in order to conceal the meanness and obscurity in which the birth of their nation is involved, have claimed the honor of being descended from the gods. Although no reliance is to be placed upon their accounts of the first ages of the empire, they are worthy of observation and curiosity.

2. Æneas, a Trojan prince, said to have been the son of Anchises and Venus, after escaping from the horrors of the destruction of Troy, and after having, in a long course of wandering, gone through many vicissitudes and adventures, landed at the mouth of the Tiber, in Italy, and presented himself to Latinus, king of the country. By him he was kindly received, and promised the hand of his daughter Lavinia in marriage. She, however, had previously, with the sanction of her mother Amata, been betrothed to Turnus, king of the Rutuli, and he was accordingly incensed against the stranger who came to bear away his bride.

3. To prevent the proposed marriage of Æneas with Lavinia, Turnus made war against him, and after several severe battles was killed, in single combat, by his rival. Æneas immediately married Lavinia, in whose honor he built the town of Lavinium. He succeeded his father-in-law on the throne. His death took place, after a reign of a few years, in a battle with the Etrurians.

4. Numitor, (the fifteenth king in a direct line from Æneas,) took possession of the throne, pursuant to the will of his father; while to his brother Amulius were left all the treasures which had been brought to Italy from Troy. Amulius, however, confiding in the influence of his wealth, dethroned his brother and usurped the royal authority. With the jealousy of guilt, he feared the future fortunes of the sons of Numitor, whom he put to death, that he might enjoy his ill-gotten power in security.

5. Having disposed of his unfortunate nephews, he determined to prevent the possibility of having rivals in the descendants of his brother's only daughter, Rhea Silvia, whom he compelled to become a vestal virgin. She, however, became the mother of Romulus and Remus. As soon as their birth was discovered, the mother was condemned to be buried alive; and the infants,

Romulus and Remus.

in a wicker basket, were exposed to the mercy of the swollen waters of the Tiber.

6. The children were saved by this circumstance: the Tiber having at this time inundated its banks, and flowed far upon the land, the water into which the basket

had been cast, proved too shallow to drown them, and on the water subsiding, they were taken up by the king's herdsman, Faustulus, and carried to his wife, Acca Laurentia, by whom they were brought up as her own children.

7. Romulus and Remus, as they grew up among the simple shepherds, soon gave proof of desires and talents which did not belong to the condition of their associates. They developed an ambition and daring which were calculated to surprise those who did not know the royal blood that flowed within their veins. The amusements of the chase soon displeased them by their monotony, and as an image of war, they were forced to content themselves with petty skirmishes with the robbers that infested the neighborhood.

8. In one of their adventures, Remus, having been captured by Numitor's herdsmen, was taken before the king and accused of being a robber. Meanwhile, Romulus, gaining information from Faustulus of his high birth, and the rank to which it entitled him, called together the hardy shepherds of the neighborhood, infused into their minds some of his own fiery daring and enthusiasm, and, putting himself at their head, attacked the guards and dwelling of the usurper. Wholly taken by surprise, and cowardly by nature, he was easily overcome, and the throne restored to Numitor, who, by the prowess of his grandson, whom he recognised, found himself again invested with the authority of which he had been deprived forty-two years before.

9. Having seen Numitor quietly re-established on his throne, his adventurous grandsons resolved to found a new city. Its location, they determined, should be upon those hills where they had formerly tended their flocks and herds. They invited all who were willing to court fortune and desirous of novelty to join them.

10. That they might proceed in their undertaking with proper solemnity, they coincided with the opinions of their grandfather, that they should, according to custom, take an omen from the flight of birds. They therefore stationed themselves upon different hills, and anxiously awaited the result. To Remus there first appeared six vultures, but to Romulus twice that number; and the latter omen being the most complete, Romulus thought himself victorious. His pretensions, however, were warmly contested by his brother Remus, and occasioned a vehement quarrel between them. The location of the walls of Rome was marked by a slight trench, and on Romulus commanding his brother to respect the boundary, the latter laughing scornfully, passed it at a leap. Romulus immediately struck him a fatal blow, and exclaimed, 'So perish all, who would deride the walls of Rome!'

11. Romulus, now eighteen years of age, steadily pursued the plan he had proposed. He commenced the building of the city in the year B. C. 752. It was called *Roma, (Rome,)* from its founder, was built upon the Palatine hill, where the fortunate omen had occurred, in the form of a square, and contained, shortly after the date of its commencement, nearly a thousand houses. It was about a mile in circumference, and possessed a territory surrounding the walls of about twenty-five miles in circuit. Circumscribed, however, as its limits were, at first it was thinly inhabited, and it was not until the new and daring legislator had invited thither outlaws, robbers, the greatest criminals, and all who were desirous of change, that he was enabled to number multitudes within the gates of Rome.

12. No sooner had the walls of the city begun to appear above their foundations, than the inhabitants began to think of providing some form for their constitution. Romulus generously left them to choose their own head, and they unanimously elected him their king. He was, besides, acknowledged the head of their religion, their chief magistrate, and the commander-in-chief in their army. They appointed him a body guard, and to impress the people with an idea of his authority, they also instituted a body, consisting of twelve men, who bore bundles of rods tied around axes, and who were always to precede him. These were to execute the sentences of the laws; they were called *lictors*, and their implements *fasces*.

13. The senate consisted of one hundred of the principal citizens, men who had acquired a natural ascendancy over the minds of their fellows by age, wisdom, or valor. The first senator was appointed by the king, and to him was delegated the authority of governor at home, during the absence of the king in war.

14. The plebeians, the third branch of the legislature, authorized the laws introduced by the king or the senate. By the votes of their assembly, all civil and military affairs, the appointment of a magistrate, even the choice of a king, were confirmed.

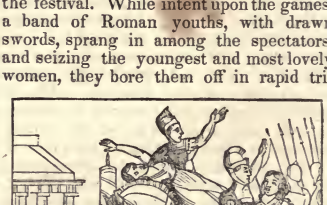
15. Romulus, among his first cares, directed his attention to regulating the religious ceremonies, and enforcing their observance. The precise form of the religion of the period is unknown to us; it consisted principally in a very vague belief, and was mainly in the hands of the augurs or soothsayers, who, by the flight of birds, the appearance of the entrails of the beasts slain at sacrifices, and the observance of trivial occurrences, pretended to penetrate the secrets of the future, and assume the direction of the present. No enterprise, therefore, was permitted to be undertaken without first consulting them.

16. Wives were forbidden to separate from their husbands upon any pretext whatever, although the men had perfect liberty to repudiate them on the slightest pretence. The laws with regard to parental authority were still more oppressive. A father had a tyrannical power over his children's lives and fortune, and could imprison or sell them, regardless of age, sex, or condition.

17. Romulus next proceeded to number the inhabitants of Rome: he found they amounted only to three thousand foot, and about three hundred horsemen able to bear arms. These he divided into three tribes, assigning to each tribe a separate portion of the city. These tribes were each again subdivided into ten curiæ, or companies, of one hundred men each, commanded by a centurion; a priest, termed curio, to perform the sacrifices, and two magistrates, called decemviri, to administer justice. Multitudes now thronged to the new and well regulated city, and they only needed women to complete its prosperity.

18. Romulus, by means of deputies dispatched to the neighboring Sabines, invited them to form an alliance, and showed them the advantages which would accrue to them from an intimate connection with the Romans. The Sabines, a proud people, and then celebrated as the most warlike of the Italians, rejected these proposals with the utmost disdain; and Romulus, incensed at their contempt, resolved to gain his purpose, and humble the pride of his neighbors at the same time.

19. He issued through the neighboring villages a proclamation for the celebration of a feast in honor of Neptune, and his extensive preparations heralded a brilliant spectacle. These entertainments, preceded by august sacrifices, ended in exhibitions of wrestlers, gladiators, and chariot races. True to his hopes and anticipations, the Sabines came foremost of the spectators, and brought with them their fair wives and daughters to participate in the pleasures of the festival. While intent upon the games, a band of Roman youths, with drawn swords, sprang in among the spectators, and seizing the youngest and most lovely women, they bore them off in rapid tri-



Rape of Sabine women.

umph. In vain did the guests represent the enormity of this violation of the rights of hospitality, in vain did the young Sabine women oppose the caresses of their rude lovers; the first could obtain no redress by remonstrances, and the fears of the latter soon changed to feelings of affection.

20. What the tardy Sabines were too dilatory to attempt, the inhabitants of Cenina,* Antemna,† and Crustuminum‡ were resolved to do, revenge the common cause in arms. But being so imprudent as to make separate incursions on the Romans, they were at different times defeated by Romulus. Prudence, mildness, and moderation characterized his treatment of the vanquished. Instead of putting the subdued warriors to the sword, and burning their towns, he placed in them colonies of Romans, thereby securing an outward defence in case of any future attack upon Rome.

21. The last and most redoubtable enemy who undertook to revenge the abduction of the Sabine women was Tatius, king of Cures, a city of the Sabines. He marched upon Rome at the head of twenty-five thousand men, and having the good fortune to meet with Tarpeia, the daughter of the commandant at the Capitoline§ hill, she engaged, for a reward which she named, to lead the troops within the city. She had asked for what the soldiers bore upon their arms, meaning their *bracelets;* but when they had entered the city gates, as a punishment for her perfidy, they flung their weighty bucklers upon her, and crushed her to death.

22. The Sabines, having the advantageous position of the Capitoline hill, gave battle to the Romans, and the contest was carried on for three days. An unexpected circumstance terminated the last battle which was fought in the valley between the Capitoline and Quirinal hills. During the heat of the conflict, the Sabine women, with dishevelled hair, and destitute of ornament, rushed in between the contending parties, and regardless of their deadly weapons, with tears in their eyes, supplicated their husbands and children to desist. The hostile armies, impelled by a mutual feeling, threw down their weapons.

23. Terms of accommodation were agreed upon, in which it was stipulated that Tatius and Romulus should reign conjointly in Rome, with equal power and privileges; that one hundred Sabines should be admitted into the senate; that, although the city should retain its name, the inhabitants should be called Quirites, from Cures, the principal town of the Sabines; and that those Sabines who preferred it, should be permitted to reside in Rome, and have all the privileges and immunities of Roman citizens. Tatius was soon afterwards slain by the Lavinians for protecting some of his servants who had robbed and murdered the Lavinian ambassador.

24. Romulus, on finding himself again sole monarch of Rome, was unable to repress the extravagant pride he felt. His haughtiness and presumption disgusted the senate, who found their advice and authority disregarded, and themselves mere instruments in the hands of an arbitrary ruler. The king was then put to death; in what manner it is uncertain. Some assert that his body was torn in pieces in the senate house; others, that he disappeared during a review of his troops. His body was carefully concealed, and the people, persuaded that he was taken up to heaven, conferred upon him divine honors. They were content to worship as a god him whom they would not obey as a king. Romulus reigned thirty-seven years. After his death, the Romans dedicated a temple to him under the name of Quirinus.

CHAPTER XX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The choice of a successor to Romulus was productive of great division. Both Romans and Sabines claimed the honor of having the new king chosen from their respective nations. Finally, the senate agreed to take the royal authority into their

* A town of Latium.

† A city between Rome and the Anio. Hence the derivation of the word *ante amnem*—(*before the river.*)

‡ A town of Etruria, near Veii.

§ The Capitoline hill, after the death of Tarpeia, was called the Tarpeian hill, (*Tarpeius mons,*) from the circumstance of her being buried there. In after-times, the Romans used to throw condemned criminals down its steep declivit .

hands, each senator enjoying the honors and power of a king for five days. The plebeians, however, were not long in discovering the disadvantages of this method, which gave them a multitude of masters of different habits and ideas, and the kingly power rested with the senate for the space of one year only.

2. Numa Pompilius was chosen king in the year B. C. 715. He was about forty years old; mild, learned, and talented; and possessed of that kind of influence which the kingdom at that time so much needed. Rome, being then of so recent formation, and containing within its society such discordant elements and principles, so many wild and ill-regulated minds, required gentleness to soften, as well as authority to command, and talent to direct.

3. It was not without reluctance that Numa, who, until the period of his becoming king, had lived in tranquil and pleasant retirement at Cures, accepted the dignified office which was offered him. Universal joy prevailed on the occasion. The new monarch began at once to impress his subjects with the importance of piety, the duties of religion and social virtues. To gain greater influence over their minds, he feigned divine inspiration, and a frequent intercourse with the goddess Egeria.

4. He built numerous temples, instituted new orders of priests and feasts in honor of the goddess. He built the temple of Janus, the gates of which were open in war, but shut in time of peace. He established the vestal virgins, four in number, in their duties and prerogatives. He divided the Roman calendar, and set apart the days for work, which he called *fasti*, and those for worship, called *nefasti*. Agriculture, as a sacred duty, was allowed on the last. He abolished the distinction which existed between the Romans and Sabines, by dividing the people into trades, and making the members of each trade work and live together.

5. After a reign of forty-three years, which was distinguished, not by bloodshed and by brilliant successes in arms, but by a time of uninterrupted peaceful prosperity and order, Numa Pompilius died at the age of fourscore. He directed his body, contrary to usage, to be buried in a stone coffin, and his twenty-four books of ceremonies, twelve in Latin, and the same number in Greek, to be interred in another by his side.

6. After the death of Numa, there again occurred an interregnum, during which the senate resumed the royal authority. At length, the people and the senate concurred in the election of Tullus Hostilius, a warlike and adventurous man, whose grandfather, a noble Roman, had signalized himself by his prowess in the battles with the Sabines. The new king of Rome burned to lead his forces forth to battle. He did not long wish for war in vain. The Albans soon gave him an opportunity for the display of his valor and military talents. The hostile armies drew up confronting each other on a plain about five miles from Rome.

7. When the parties were standing in suspense, the Alban general proposed the decision of the controversy by single combat, adding that the nation of the vanquished champion should submit to that of the victorious. The proposal was received with acclamation by the Roman king and by the warriors of both armies.

8. In the Roman camp were three twin-brothers, the Horatii, in the Alban other three, the Curiatii. These were chosen unanimously by their respective nations to decide the contest. Equally armed, and apparently equally matched, they advanced

Horatii and Curiatii.

to the combat. In the furious onset which took place, victory appeared to decide in

favor of the Albans, for two of the Horatii lay dead upon the field, and the surviving brother took to flight.

9. Soon, however, the Curiatii observed that the flight was feigned. The last of the Horatii was unhurt, and, awaiting the respective arrivals of his antagonists, who, by reason of their wounds, were unable to come up with him at the same time, he slew them one by one, and thus victory rested with the Roman arms.

10. This event was, of course, productive of the greatest joy on their return to Rome. But the victor had not yet had his fill of death, and, ere night fell, his hands were dipped in the blood of his sister, whom, because amidst the general joy, he found her weeping for her slain lover, one of the Curiatii, he killed upon the spot.

11. Even the stern spirit of a Roman senate could permit a few tears to a woman in her circumstances, and, detesting the brutality of the murderer, they condemned him to suffer punishment. He was pardoned on an appeal to the people.

12. Tullus Hostilius died after a reign of thirty-two years, some assert by lightning, but most probably from treason.

CHAPTER XXI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. An interregnum ensued on the death of Tullus Hostilius, which was terminated by the election of Ancus Martius, a grandson of Numa Pompilius, who inherited all the piety, talent, and virtue of that monarch. He was also a brave warrior. He ascended the throne, 640 years B. C. He appointed sacred ceremonies which were to precede the declaration of war, and he endeavored to dissuade his subjects from military ambition, and impressed upon them the superior importance of the cultivation of the arts of peace and agriculture.

2. His prudence was mistaken for cowardice among the neighboring nations, and the Latins, in consequence, made an incursion on his territories, in which they were completely defeated by king Ancus, who conquered them, carried them to Rome, and annexed part of their possessions to the Roman empire.

3. He subdued also an insurrection of the Veii, of the Fidenates, and the Volscians, and gained a second triumph over the Sabines. But he did the greatest service to his people by his direction of their civil affairs. He built temples, and a prison for malefactors, erected fortifications to protect the city, and by building a seaport, called Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber, he secured to the Romans the trade of that river and the adjacent salt-pits. He died after a glorious reign of twenty-four years.

4. Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, who was originally named Lucumon, was appointed guardian to the sons of the late king. His father was a Corinthian who had obtained his wealth by trade. Having married a woman of family in Tarquinii,* and finding himself held in little regard, Lucumon, at the instigation of his wife, removed to Rome, where she told him merit was sufficient to obtain respect and fortune.

5. On the road, an eagle descended over the chariot, and, hovering for some time, stooped, took off his hat, circled above him, and then replaced it. Tanaquil, his wife, who was skilled in augury, told him the omen meant that he should one day wear the crown.

6. This circumstance first fired his ambition. Being of popular manners, and lavish in the expenditure of his money, he gained the favor of the people. When the government, on the death of Ancus, devolved, as usual, upon the senate, Tarquin endeavored to have the king's children set aside, and himself elected in their stead. He sent them out of the city on the day of election, and presenting himself to the people, addressed them with persuasive eloquence. He told of the friendship that he bore to the Roman people, of the sums he had expended in their city, of his plans and resolutions for the future, and he was unanimously elected, 616 years B. C.

* Now *Turchina*, a town of Etruria.

7. Although the manner of his acquiring the sovereign authority was blameable, he proved an equitable and valiant king. In the commencement of his reign, he admitted one hundred additional members into the senate, thus making the whole number amount to three hundred. But he had hardly begun his peaceful duties, when an incursion of the Latins compelled him to take arms. These turbulent invaders he conquered and obliged to beg for peace, and then turned his victorious arms against the Sabines, who had again risen and crossed the river Tiber. They sustained an overwhelming defeat. Many who survived the battle were drowned in attempting to cross the stream, which, as it bore to Rome the armor and corpses of the slain, became the first messenger of welcome victory.

8. After having returned from war, graced with triumph, Tarquin undertook many public works, both useful and ornamental to the city.

9. At this time the soothsayers were in very great repute at Rome, and wonderful stories were related of their divine wisdom and skill. Tanaquil, the wife of the monarch, was a pretender to the art; but its greatest master was Accius Nævius, the justice of whose pretensions the king was determined to decide. He presented himself to the soothsayer, and asked if what he was then thinking of, could be accomplished. The soothsayer boldly answered, 'Yes.' 'I was thinking,' said the king, 'if it were possible for me to cut through this whetstone with a razor.' 'Cut boldly,' said the other, 'you can do it.' The king made the attempt and succeeded. Thenceforth no one ventured to attempt anything without first consulting the augurs.

10. Tarquin could not content himself with the kingdom without the splendid insignia of royalty. He had a golden diadem, a throne of ivory, robes of purple, and a sceptre surmounted by an eagle. These badges of the regal dignity are thought to have first inflamed the minds of the sons of Ancus, who had patiently submitted to his reign for more than thirty-seven years. His avowed intention of adopting Servius Tullius, his son-in-law, for a successor, still further exasperated their minds against him. They hired two ruffians, who penetrated to the royal presence and slew the sovereign with an axe. The murderers were seized by the lictors,

Death of Tarquinius.

and afterwards put to death; but the sons of Ancus escaped. Thus miserably perished, at the age of eighty years, Lucius Tarquinius. His surname of Priscus distinguishes him from a later king of the same name. His reign, which was one of great prosperity, public and private, lasted thirty-eight years.

CHAPTER XXII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Tanaquil, wife of the late king, aware of what danger she should incur, if the death of the king became known, and the conspirators succeeded, resolved to conceal her sorrows and the melancholy event from the people. She assured them from a window of the palace, that the king, although wounded and stunned by the blow, yet, fortunately, survived, and while incapacitated from discharging his duties, had commissioned his son-in-law, Servius Tullius, to act in his stead.

2. Accordingly, Servius issued from the palace, preceded by the lictors, and possessed of the insignia of royalty. He went to transact some public business, which he did, as he affirmed, by order of Tarquin

The death of that monarch was concealed until Servius Tullius had formed a party among the nobles, when he was elected king by the suffrages of the senate, without the vote of the people, 578 years B. C.

3. Servius was the son of a bondwoman; but while an infant, a crown of flame played around his brow, which was accepted by Tarquin as an augury of future greatness. His exertions, when intrusted with the crown, were directed towards increasing the power of the senate, and weakening that of the people.

4. That he might obtain an accurate knowledge of the wealth and number of his subjects, he appointed a *lustrum* to be held every five years in the Campus Martius, where the citizens were commanded to assemble in armor, and give an exact account of their families and fortunes.

5. After having passed many years of his reign in tranquillity, Servius thought to end his days in peace. He wished to secure the fortunes of Rome, and, erecting it into a republic, to retire from office with honor and respect. But he was not permitted to carry his generous designs into effect. He had married his two daughters to the two grandsons of Tarquin, and knowing that the women, as well as their husbands, were of different dispositions, he thought to curb the temper of the haughty by uniting them to the meek.

6. Lucius, his haughty son-in-law, soon grew tired of his mild consort, and became enamored of Tullia, his brother's wife. A mutual passion inflamed the minds of these kindred spirits, and murdering, the one her husband, the other his bride, Lucius and Tullia were united. They then began to foment dissensions, and raise a party against the king; Lucius, alleging the illegality of his title to the crown, claimed it for himself as heir of Tarquin.

7. Finding the senate prepared to sanction his attempts, he entered the senate-house, clothed in royal robes, and from the throne harangued the assembly upon the obscurity of the king's origin, and the manifest defect in his title. During his speech, the king entered with a few attendants, and, finding his throne occupied, attempted to remove the usurper. But the fiery Lucius hurled him down the steps, and, while feebly attempting to retire to his palace, he was followed by the adherents of the usurper, killed, and his mangled and bleeding body cast into the public street.

8. Tullia, burning with impatience for the result, commanded her charioteer to drive her to the senate-house, that she might be the first to salute her husband king. As they approached the place where the appalling spectacle of the bloody corpse of her father was presented to full view, the charioteer prepared to turn away; but this female monster, angry and impatient, hurled the footstool at his head, and bade him drive over the dead body. Then, with her chariot-wheels and horses' hoofs reeking with her father's blood, she rushed to meet her husband. Thus ended Servius Tullius, after a reign of forty-four years, which was distinguished by prosperity, justice and moderation.

CHAPTER XXIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Lucius Tarquinius Superbus, or Tarquin the Proud, ascended the throne, 534 years B. C. As he was viewed with general horror and detestation, he determined to act upon his own authority without consulting the legislative bodies. He surrounded himself with guards, and put to death all those whom he suspected of having been warmly attached to Servius. His policy was to keep the people employed in war and public works, to divert their minds from the consideration of his tyranny.

2. Having been successful in arms, and conquered many of the neighboring states, he was mortified by the determined and powerful resistance of the people of Gabii*

* A city of the Volscians, built by the kings of Alba, but now no more.

whom he determined to subdue. He effected the conquest by stratagem. He directed his son Sextus to fly for protection to the Gabians, complaining severely of the harsh treatment he had experienced from his own people. The Gabians received him hospitably, and soon made him general of their armies. Being successful in two or three inconsiderable engagements, he was firmly possessed of their confidence. He sent to his father to receive his advice upon his future conduct.

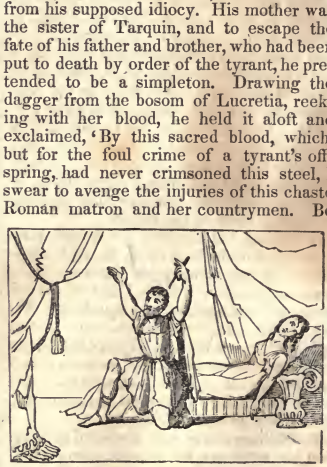
3. Tarquin received the messenger in his garden, and for his only reply, walked about among the flowers and struck off the heads of the taller poppies with his stick. When the messenger, in astonishment, related this conduct to Sextus, the latter at once comprehended the course of policy which his father wished him to pursue. He found means to remove or destroy the most influential of the Gabians who were obnoxious to his interest, taking care to divide their property among the people, who, thus blinded by self-interest and avarice, gradually and without a struggle fell under the dominion of Tarquin.

4. After Tarquin had reigned some years, and the people were worn out by his tyranny, a circumstance occurred, which raised their indignation against him to the highest pitch. In a military expedition, the young officers, kinsmen of the king, fell into a discussion over their wine on the merits of their respective wives. One proposed that, instead of wasting the time in words, they should mount their horses and ride to Rome, judging of their beauty and industry by taking them unaware in their homes. The proposition was accepted. All the ladies of rank and beauty were engaged in frivolity and feasting, with the exception of Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, who was found employed in discharging domestic avocations, surrounded by her handmaids. The preference was given to this faultless matron.

5. Sextus Tarquin came away from this scene with a mind inflamed with a guilty passion for the Roman matron. A few nights after, he returned to her residence, penetrated to her apartment, and avowed his fiery love. He was heard with abhorrence and scorn. Sextus then told her that if she repulsed him, he would slay her, drag to her presence the slave whom he had killed for opposing his progress, and inform her husband that he had surprised them together, and punished them by death. By this shameful menace, the son of Tarquin prevailed, and rejoined the camp before daylight.

6. On the morrow, Lucretia sent for her husband and kinsmen. They found her sitting in ashes, with dishevelled hair, and a countenance pale and furrowed with sorrow, shame and pain. After disclosing her misfortune, and declaring that she would never survive her disgrace, she drew forth a dagger which she had concealed, and sheathed it in her heart.

7. The first person who aroused from the stupor occasioned by this act, was Lucius Junius, surnamed Brutus, or the brute, from his supposed idiocy. His mother was the sister of Tarquin, and to escape the fate of his father and brother, who had been put to death by order of the tyrant, he pretended to be a simpleton. Drawing the dagger from the bosom of Lucretia, reeking with her blood, he held it aloft and exclaimed, 'By this sacred blood, which, but for the foul crime of a tyrant's offspring, had never crimsoned this steel, I swear to avenge the injuries of this chaste Roman matron and her countrymen. Be



Brutus denouncing vengeance against the Tyrant.

witness, ye immortal gods, to the oath of enmity and revenge, which I hereby take against the race of Tarquin. With fire

and sword will I pursue them, until their very name shall be no more.'

8. In order to present the consequence of Sextus Tarquin's crime in the strongest light, Brutus caused the body to be borne to the forum, whence he harangued the citizens with all the eloquence inspired by just indignation and a virtuous cause. The lips which had so long been schooled to utter the unmeaning phrases of a soulless idiot, now gave vent to language energetic and effective, and the form of the orator dilated with the expression of his sentiments. He infused into his hearers no small portion of his own feeling, and the hatred long felt in silence against Tarquin, now broke out in open tumult and revolt.

9. The city and the camp declared themselves against Tarquin at nearly the same time. The tyrant hastened to the city to quell the insurrection; but he found the gates closed against him. He turned back to the camp, to assemble the soldiers and lead them on against the citizens; but he was warned not to enter. Brutus obtained a decree of the senate, forever banishing Tarquin and his family from Rome, and making it a capital crime for any person to plead for his return or assist him in procuring it. He retired to Cira, a small city in Etruria, and thus, in the two hundred and forty-fourth year from the building of Rome, royalty perished, and a republican government was declared.

CHAPTER XXIV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. As soon as the kingly power had been abolished, a republican form of government was decided upon. The senate retained the greatest share of power. The centuries of the people made an annual election of two senators, who were called consuls, and were invested with a power equal to that of the former kings. Lucius Junius Brutus and Lucius Tarquinius Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were the first consuls.

2. No sooner, however, had the new government been organized, than a conspiracy was formed among the young nobles of Rome, which threatened its destruction. The number of conspirators rapidly increased, and the sons of Brutus and the Aquilii, nephews of Collatinus, ranked with the malcontents. Tarquin, learning these events, sent messengers from Etruria* to Rome under pretence of reclaiming the crown, but in secret to foment the intestine dissensions.

3. The plot was discovered by a slave, who concealed himself in the apartment where the conspirators held their meetings. They were brought to trial, and accused before the consuls. Silent and horror-struck, they could offer no defence. Dreadful was the situation of Brutus, compelled to decide upon the guilt and fate of his own children, yet he alone appeared unmoved and tearless.

4. Three times did he demand with a clear, loud and unfaltering voice, if they could urge aught in their defence: three times did their dreadful silence declare the hopelessness of their condition. Receiving no answer. Brutus turned to the executioner: 'You,' said he, 'must perform the rest.' He witnessed the scourging and decapitation of his sons with a calm countenance, himself an object of the pity, veneration and admiration of the crowd.

5. The failure of the conspiracy having ruined Tarquin's hopes of success by internal treason, he determined to make an open attempt to regain his throne. Having obtained the assistance of the Veians,† he

* Etruria was a very noted country of Italy, at the west of the Tiber. It originally contained twelve different nations, each having their respective king, called Lucumon. The names of these nations were the Veientes, Clusini, Perusini, Cortonenses, Arretini, Vetulonii, Volaterrani, Rusellani, Volscinii, Tarquinii, Falisci and Cœretani. The inhabitants were famous for their superstition and firm belief in auguries, dreams, &c. They were resolute and daring enemies of the Romans, by whom they were subjugated only after an immense effusion of blood.

† Veii, the city of the Veians, belonged to Etruria, and was twelve miles distant from Rome. It sustained many wars against the Romans, and

took up arms against the Romans 508 years B. C.

6. At the head of a large army he advanced upon Rome, whence the consuls issued to oppose his progress; Valerius* commanding the foot, and Brutus leading on the cavalry. When Aruns, the son of Tarquin, commander of the hostile horse, perceived Brutus, he determined to decide the fortune of the field by an encounter with him. Brutus, seeing Aruns spurring forward his charger, advanced with equal alacrity and fire to attack him. They met, and fought with fury for a short time, when both fell from their horses dead upon the field.

7. In the bloody conflict which ensued, the slaughter upon both sides was equal; but the Romans, remaining upon the field, claimed the victory. Tarquin, however, whose resolute spirit was untamed by his misfortunes, soon prevailed upon Porsenna, an Etrurian king, to aid him. This valiant prince laid siege to Rome. He was firmly opposed by the consuls, who were carried off the field wounded, while the Romans were driven to the bridge over the Tiber, by which victors and vanquished were to enter the city.

8. An act of heroism now occurred, which deserves never to be forgotten. Horatius Cocles,† a Roman sentinel, threw himself before the enemy and successfully opposed their onset, until the bridge was broken down behind him, and the communication on which the enemy relied thus cut off. He then paused a moment on the brink of the river, and exclaimed, 'O! father Tiber, take, I pray thee, a soldier and his arms, in thy propitious waves.' He then leaped into the stream and swam safely over, amidst the applauding shouts of his fellow warriors.

9. Porsenna maintained his position in spite of the impetuosity and courage with which the sallies of the besieged were conducted. He determined by a blockade to reduce the city through famine, and the wretched inhabitants were soon subjected to the most painful sufferings. Nothing, however, could tame their undaunted spirit, and an heroic act of one of their noble youth put an end to their distresses.

10. Mutius, a young Roman, in the disguise of a peasant, penetrated to the tent of the Etrurian monarch, resolved to die or slay him. But mistaking the secretary of the king for Porsenna, he killed him, and was then arrested and led to the royal presence, which he entered without fear. Porsenna demanded the reason for his guilty act, and Mutius declared his intention, adding, 'think not I fear the most severe punishment you can inflict upon me.' So saying, he thrust his right hand into the fire, and saw it burn unmoved. 'Tremble, king, for thy life,' continued Mutius. 'Not I alone, but thirty Roman youth have sworn to take thy life: prepare to die.'

11. Struck with this gallant conduct, Porsenna offered terms of peace to the Romans, which were joyfully accepted. The hardest of the conditions was that which stipulated that twenty Roman hostages, ten young men and the same number of young maidens, of the first families, should be delivered up to him.

12. The heroic spirit of the age and country shone forth conspicuously even in the gentle sex. Clelia, one of the hostages, escaped from her guards, and, pointing out the way to her companions, swam her horse across the Tiber, while the Etrurian darts and javelins kept up an iron rain

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was finally taken and destroyed by Camillus. At the time of its destruction it was actually larger and more splendid than the 'eternal city' herself. Its situation was so eligible that, after the burning of the city by the Gauls, the Romans were, for a long time, inclined to forsake their home for it, and would have done so if unrestrained by the eloquence of Camillus.

* Valerius was surnamed Publicola. He was a true patriot, warmly opposed to Tarquin the Proud, and the first to swear fealty to the republic. He at first refused office, but loved his countrymen so much that when they observed that his house overtowered its fellows and eclipsed the surrounding buildings by its magnificence, he levelled it with the ground. When chosen consul, he was several times re-elected, and gained universal approbation by his courage, equity and wisdom.

† Cocles, the *one-eyed*, because he had the use of but one eye. Publicola erected a brazen statue in honor of him in the temple of Vulcan.

around her. The consul, to whom she presented herself, fearing to detain her, sent her back to Porsenna, who, resolving not

Clelia escaping.

to be surpassed in generosity, freed her, and gave her permission to select such of the hostages of the other sex as she judged proper to accompany her back to Rome. With the graceful modesty of a Roman virgin, she chose those under fourteen, saying that their tender age unfitted them to bear the rigors of captivity. Her courage was rewarded by an equestrian statue in the Via* Sacra.

CHAPTER XXV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Tarquin, through Manilius, his son-in-law, stirred up the Latins to espouse his cause, and cunningly chose a time for his design when the plebeians were at variance with the senate on the subject of the payment of their debts. They refused to go to war unless a discharge from their obligations was guaranteed upon their return from doing military duty.

2. In this emergency, the consuls, finding their authority inadequate to the crisis, proposed to the plebeians the creation of a dictator, a temporary magistrate, whose power should be absolute, and extend, not only over all ranks of the people, but even over the laws themselves. The plebeians consented to relinquish their own power for the pleasure of seeing that of their superiors diminished, and Lartius was accordingly chosen dictator in the year 498, B. C.

3. Lartius commenced his administration, surrounded by the lictors and all the imposing marks of royalty. In the manner of the ancient kings, he levied his troops, displayed his standards, and, after a victorious campaign, marched back triumphantly to Rome. It is admitted that Lartius exercised his dangerous authority with the greatest equity and moderation: he even resigned his dictatorship before the term of the office, six months, had expired.

4. The turbulent plebeians, determined to free themselves from the domination of their masters, under the guidance of Licurius, one of their order, left Rome, and formed a new establishment at Mons Sacer, on the banks of the river Anio,* about three miles from the city.

5. All ranks partook of the consternation which this proceeding excited, and a deputation was sent, inviting, nay, entreating their return to Rome. This having no effect, ten commissioners, men of popular manners, and in favor with the people, were empowered to treat with them. These ambassadors met with a favorable reception from the soldiers.

6. Lartius and Valerius, the heads of the deputation, employed all their polished and persuasive oratory, while Lucius Junius and Sicurius, the spokesmen of the soldiers, answered with a rude and natural eloquence, inspired by their distresses. At length, Menenius Agrippa, who had been a plebeian, and knew what style of speech suited them best, related the following fable, which has been finely told by Livy:

* This was the street in which the treaty of peace was concluded between Romulus and Tatius. It led from the amphitheatre to the capitol by the temple of the goddess of peace, and that of Cæsar. The triumphal processions passed through it to the capitol.

* Now *Taverone*, an Italian river flowing through the country of Tiber, and falling into the Tiber five miles above Rome. It is supposed to derive its name from Anius, an Etrurian king, who drowned himself in its stream.

7. 'In old times, when the different members of the body were endowed with speech, the limbs determined to revolt against the belly, which, they said, lay at its ease in the midst of them, who were obliged to toil for it from morning to night. The feet refused to carry it, the hands would no longer feed it, and the teeth ceased to masticate food. But, instead of mortifying the belly, they found they were injuring themselves, and dooming themselves to languor and pains, and they discovered too late that it was to the belly they owed their strength to work and the courage to rebel.'

8. Agrippa was heard with applause, and the people declared that he should lead them back to the city. Lucius Junius restrained their ardor, and told them that, however well-disposed the senate might then be, it was necessary to provide some safeguard for the future, in an annual election of magistrates from their body, who should have power to redress their injuries, and plead their cause.

9. The commissioners, whose power did not extend far enough to authorize granting their requests, returned to Rome and laid the matter before the senate. The senators, harassed by these divisions, and willing to attain union by any sacrifice, consented to the creation of new officers, called *tribunes of the people.* Appius alone dissented from this opinion.

10. The tribunes were at first five in number: they were afterwards increased to ten. They were elected annually by the people, and generally chosen from their body. They, at first, had their seats at the door of the senate house, and were called in to examine decrees, which they annulled by the word *Veto, I forbid it,* or confirmed by signing the letter T, the first of their name, and this made the laws valid.

11. Sicinius Bellunus, Lucius Junius, Caius Licinius, Albinus, and Icilius Ruga, were the first tribunes. The senate having made a law for the abolition of the debts of the plebeians, and adjusted their grievances, the latter, after a sacrifice to the gods of the sacred mountain, returned triumphantly to Rome.

CHAPTER XXVI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The famine incidental to the neglect of tillage, occasioned by the late disturbances, once more exasperated the unreasonable plebeians against the senators, who were doing all in their power to alleviate the calamity. The people asserted, that the patricians had become purchasers of immense quantities of corn, by the sale of which they intended to indemnify themselves for the loss occasioned by the abolition of debts. The arrival of a fleet from Sicily, laden with corn, quelled their tumults for a moment.

2. Coriolanus, a brave and noble Roman, who had done his country the greatest service, incurred the resentment of the plebeians, by insisting that the grievances of the senate should be redressed before the distribution of corn took place. For this, the tribunes summoned him to trial before the people. Neither the intrepidity with which he appeared, pursuant to the summons, nor the cries of those whom he had saved from destruction, could influence his judges, and, confounded by a new charge, that of embezzling the spoils of Antium,* he was condemned to a perpetual exile.

3. After taking an affecting leave of his mother Veturia, and recommending his wife and children to the care of the gods, accompanied by Tullus Attius, a man of great power among the Volscians, he left Rome, followed by the regrets and lamentations of its most respectable citizens. Tullus Attius offered him an asylum among his people, and it was immediately resolved, upon some pretext, to declare war against the Romans.

* A maritime town of Italy, built upon a promontory thirty-two miles from Ostium. It was the capital of the Volscians. Camillus took it, and carried the beaks of all the ships to Rome, where he decorated a tribunal in the forum with these trophies. The tribunal was thence called the rostrum. Antium was dedicated to the goddess of fortune, whose statues nodded and gave other signs to the inquiries of votaries. It was the birthplace of Nero.

4. An opportunity was afforded by the occurrence of games at Rome, to which Tullus sent some of his people, previously informing the senate that the strangers intended to set fire to the city. This produced an order for their exclusion, which Tullus represented to the Volscians as an infraction of the treaty, and procured an embassy to Rome, complaining of the breach of faith, demanding a restoration of the territories originally possessed by the Volscians, and declaring war in case of a refusal. This message was received by the senate with contempt.

5. On a mutual declaration of war in the year 485 B. C., Coriolanus and Tullus, at the head of a powerful force, entered the Roman territories. Coriolanus ravaged the lands of the plebeians, but spared those of the senators. The levies at Rome went on but slowly. The consuls had been re-elected, but apparently feared to meet so renowned a general as Coriolanus.

6. Coriolanus was universally successful, and so popular with the Volscians, that they forsook everything to follow him to the field. Even the soldiers of his colleague's army rushed to the Roman's standard, and would acknowledge no other leader. Thus finding himself in the field, at the head of an overwhelming and unopposed force, Coriolanus determined to lay siege to Rome. It was then that the senate and people sent him a deputation, offering to make the restorations demanded at first, if he would withdraw. Their offers were sternly refused.

7. A second embassy conjuring him to ask nothing which a Roman could not honorably grant, met with a similar reception; he still persisted in his demands, and gave them three days for consideration. A third deputation of the pontiffs, priests, and augurs, attired in their official raiment, proceeded slowly and solemnly to the camp of the warrior, but, like their predecessors, found him stern and inflexible.

8. Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, accompanied by his wife and two children, at the earnest request of the senate, went to try the effect of their persuasive power and relationship upon the majestic conqueror. He had called his officers around him to witness the triumph of his firmness. Perhaps he might have withstood the tears and caresses of his wife, and the sight of his children; but his mother's agony, as she fell a suppliant at his feet, proved too much for him. He hastened to raise her, and exclaimed, 'Oh! my mother, thou hast indeed saved Rome, but hast destroyed thy son.'

9. He withdrew his forces, assuring his soldiers that the city was impregnable. But this did not serve to subdue the discontent of the Volscians; rising against him, they slew him. Soon, however, feeling remorse for the deed, with tardy and ineffective repentance, they graced the funeral of the brave Roman with all the honors of a soldier's obsequies.

CHAPTER XXVII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The rejoicing at Rome for the withdrawal of the Volscian army was great; but the public joy was soon disturbed by the intrigues of Spurius Cassius, a designing man, who thought to acquire a despotic power for himself by means of the people. Being found guilty of several crimes tending to the same point, he was hurled from the Tarpeian rock by the plebeians.

2. The following year, the tribunes of the people summoned before them Fabius and Manlius, the consuls of the preceding year, who were to stand their trial on the charge of opposing the progress of the Agrarian law, which had been proposed for the equal division of the lands of the commonwealth, among the people. This was a measure to which the senate could not agree, and they had from time to time deferred its adjustment; but finally, finding the plebeians persevering, they had recourse to the dictatorship, and fixed upon Quintus Cincinnatus to fill that important office.

3. Cincinnatus had retired to the tranquillity of his little farm, and the ambassadors of the senate found him in the simple

garb of a husbandman, holding the stilts of his plough. He was little elevated with the splendid dress and the ceremony which

Cincinnatus.

he received, and on taking leave of his family, and departing for Rome, he said to his wife, 'My Attila, our little field must lie fallow for this year.' He assumed the office, 456 years B. C.

4. Determined to favor neither of the parties, whom he saw violently inflamed against each other, by an evident desire of justice, by a strict attention to the interests of all, he gained the entire confidence and esteem of the tribunes and the people, whom he persuaded to defer the settlement of the Agrarian law. Having seen tranquillity restored, he resigned his office, and retired to his farm and the bosom of his family.

5. He was not long permitted to enjoy the life he loved best. A fresh emergency recalled him to the aid of Rome. The Æqui* and Volscians had made a fresh incursion on the Roman territories. Minutius, one of the consuls, who had been sent against them, from timidity and irresolution, suffered his army to be driven into a defile between two mountains, whence escape was impossible, and where submission to the foe, starvation, or immediate death, awaited them. This news, brought by some Roman knights who had escaped privately through the hostile camp, threw the city into consternation. The senate at first thought of sending out the other consul; but having had no experience of his abilities, they determined to have recourse to Cincinnatus, who had before served them, and who was in the confidence of the people. A second time they chose him dictator.

6. Cincinnatus was a second time found at his plough. If the emergency were great, his resources were no less so. Invested with absolute power, he chose for his master of horse Tarquitius, a poor and honest man, who, like himself, despised wealth. He assumed a cheerful and confident air, and ordered all capable of bearing arms to appear before sunset on the Campus Martius, equipped and prepared with provisions for five days.

7. Putting himself at their head, he marched forth in order, and on coming near the enemy, directed his troops to utter loud shouts, that their comrades under Minutius might be apprised of the welcome succor. The Æqui, to their horror and surprise, found themselves unexpectedly inclosed between two armies, and still more were they startled when they saw Cincinnatus making intrenchments, and preparing to cut off all possibility of their retreat. A combat which ensued convinced the Æqui of the hopelessness of their condition, and they asked a cessation of arms.

8. This was granted on the terms of the dictator. He gave them their lives, but forced them, in token of servitude, to pass beneath the yoke, which was made by two upright spears with one laid horizontally across the heads, in the form of a gallows The general and officers were reserved to grace his triumph. After a dictatorship of fourteen days, in which he had rescued a Roman army, conquered the enemy, captured and fortified their city, and enriched the Romans with their spoils, Cincinnatus, refusing the emolument offered by the senate, retired to his farm, satisfied with fame, temperance and domestic enjoyment.

9. No sooner were the dangers which threatened Rome from without ended, than intestine commotions began anew. The question of the Agrarian law was agitated still more fiercely, when an instance of popular suffering was shown in the person

* A people of Latium, near Tiber.

of Sicinius Dentatus, a plebeian, an old soldier, whose form time had not bowed, and whose spirit it had failed to quell.

10. He boasted that he had served his country in war forty years, thirty of which he had passed as an officer. He was first a centurion, afterwards, a tribune. He had fought in one hundred and twenty battles, in which he had destroyed and saved a multitude of lives; he had gained fourteen civic,* three mural, and eight golden crowns; besides eighty-three chains, sixty bracelets, eighteen gilt spears, and twenty-three horse-trappings, of which nine were for killing the enemy in single combat. He had received all his wounds, forty-five in number, in front.

11. These were his honors, and yet others reaped the harvest where he had sown the seed. He had lived to see others enjoy the lands which his arm had helped to win from the enemy. The multitude, affected by the hardship of the case, unanimously and loudly demanded that the Agrarian law should pass, and Dentatus receive the reward which he so manifestly merited. Some of the senators arose to speak against it; but, before preferring a single argument, the tumultuous cries of the multitude drowned their voices. It was in vain to hope for the empire of reason over such a scene, and, in its stead, passion prevailed. The young patricians rushed into the throng, seized and destroyed the balloting urns, and again put off the Agrarian law.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. For nearly sixty years, the different orders of the commonwealth had been engaged in contentions with each other, and to *prevent*, as well as *punish* wrongs, it was thought advisable to obtain a certain set of laws which should regulate the conduct of the people and the decisions of the magistracy. The wisdom of the Athenian laws and legislators being at that time much commended, three senators, Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, were appointed to visit Athens and the Greek cities of Italy, to bring home their most useful and equitable laws.

2. During their absence, a dreadful plague depopulated the city; but in about a year they returned, bringing with them the laws, which were divided into ten tables, and afterwards, with the addition of two more, called the laws of the twelve tables. To superintend and digest their new laws into a convenient form, the tribunes required the election of ten men who were to be chosen annually from the senate, and invested with the authority of the former kings and consuls.

3. The new magistrates, or decemviri, as they were named, entered upon office, 451 years B. C. Being invested with absolute power, they agreed to govern by rotation, each ruling for a day. In one year they completed their work; but, upon pretence of supplying a deficiency in the laws still existing, they obtained from the senate an extension of their decemvirate.

4. They soon, however, threw off the mask, and appeared in undisguised deformity. Their oppression was the theme of constant complaint, yet they were protected not only by their lictors, but by a multitude of dependants, clients, and even patricians, whom their vices had attracted. Profiting by this state of things, the Æqui and Volscians again assumed the field in numbers.

5. The whole military as well as the civil power, being in the hands of the decemviri, they divided the troops into three portions. One, under the command of Appius, remained in the city, while his two colleagues, with the two remaining divisions, marched, the one against the Æqui, and the other against the Sabines. The Romans basely abandoned their camp on the enemy's approach.

6. The news of the defeat was joyfully received at Rome. Some cried out for new

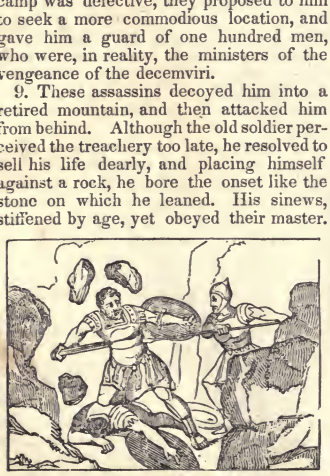
* The civic crown, a chaplet of oak leaves, was given to the soldier who saved a comrade's life in battle. The mural crown was bestowed upon him who first mounted the rampart of a hostile town. The golden crown rewarded an act of distinguished bravery

generals, some for a dictator to lead the troops to battle,—all attributed the failure to the commanders. Sicinius Dentatus, with the freedom and skill of an old veteran, loudly arraigned the conduct of the generals, and exposed the folly, cowardice, and errors of their conduct in the camp and field.

7. Appius speedily observed the disposition of the people, and marked Dentatus as an object of revenge. Under pretence of doing him honor, he sent him, as legate, with the supplies to reinforce the army. The office of legate, as uniting the authority of general with the reverence due to a priest, was held sacred by the Romans. Dentatus, suspecting and fearing nothing, went with alacrity.

8. Arrived at the camp, the generals received him with apparent respect, and listened to his advice with attention. As he told them that the present situation of their camp was defective, they proposed to him to seek a more commodious location, and gave him a guard of one hundred men, who were, in reality, the ministers of the vengeance of the decemviri.

9. These assassins decoyed him into a retired mountain, and then attacked him from behind. Although the old soldier perceived the treachery too late, he resolved to sell his life dearly, and placing himself against a rock, he bore the onset like the stone on which he leaned. His sinews, stiffened by age, yet obeyed their master.



Death of Dentatus.

Fifteen traitors fell, and thirty more bled beneath his arm. But his assailants mounted the heights above him, and plied the old veteran with rocks till he fell crushed to death. The decemviri pretended to mourn his death, and his funeral was conducted with imposing military honors.

10. Appius, to whom the city was intrusted during the absence of his colleagues at the wars, sat each day in the forum as judge. Virginia, a young Roman girl of exquisite loveliness, passed through the forum attended by her nurse; on her soft cheek sat the glow of youth and modesty, and Appius marked her for his victim. She was betrothed to Icilius, a young tribune of the people, and, of course, spurned the advances of the licentious decemvir.

11. Appius first attempted to corrupt Virginia's nurse; but her innocence had inspired her attendants with the tenderest love and fidelity. A dire scheme now entered his mind—he proposed that Claudius, a vile dependant of his, should claim her, asserting that she belonged to him, being the daughter of his female slave. Claudius attempted to seize her and drag her from the midst of her playmates; but the shrieks of her companions deterred him.

12. The next day, Claudius led her before the judge, and preferred his complaint. She was, he said, the daughter of a female slave, who had sold her to the wife of Virginius, who was childless. His statement could be proved by numerous creditable witnesses; but, until the trial could take place, it was reasonable that the slave should be delivered up to the master.

13. Appius pretended to be greatly struck with the justice of his claim, and the equity of his demand. He observed, that had the reputed father been present, Virginia should have remained with him; but as the case stood, it was no more than just that Claudius should take her home. Icilius, her lover, defended her fiercely, while Claudius took refuge under the tribunal of the decemvir, and the women surrounded the weeping and gentle Virginia, to comfort and protect her.

14. Virginius, the father of the maiden, was absent at the camp, and Appius sent orders to the generals to confine him there, lest his arrival at Rome should stir the

people to sedition. But the friends of the centurion intercepted these letters, and sent him a full account of the plot which threatened the destruction of his daughter's happiness.

15. Virginius hastened to Rome, and on the ensuing morning, to the astonishment of Appius, led his daughter before the decemviral tribunal, both clothed in the deepest mourning. He denied the claim of Claudius. His wife had borne many children, he said, whose births could be well attested. Had he ever entertained an intention of adopting a child, it would have been a boy, and not a girl; and it was singular that after lying dormant for fifteen years, the claim should now, for the first time, be revived. As he spoke this in a stern tone, with an air of calm decision, he impressed his auditors with a conviction of the truth of his words.

16. Appius now interfered as a witness for the vile minister of his pleasures. 'My conscience,' said he, 'reproaches me for having so long neglected the interests of this young man, (Claudius,) to whom, as most of the assembly know, I was left guardian. I was aware of his claims upon this female slave; but the duties of the state prevented my attending to them. It is not, however, too late to do justice. I adjudge this girl to Claudius, as his property. Lictors, disperse the throng, and assist the master to regain his slave.

17. During this speech, Virginia clung to her father's hand; her tears and trembling innocence moving all whose hearts were not entirely corrupted. As the lictors advanced to seize her, Virginius waved his hand and addressed the decemvir. 'I only ask,' said he, 'one more caress—one parting word, ere I return to do my duty in the camp.' The decemvir consented on condition that they should part in his presence.

18. For a few minutes, Virginius permitted his daughter's head to rest upon his breast, and wiped away the frequent tears that rolled down her innocent and lovely face. Then, snatching a knife from the shambles, 'Virginia!' exclaimed he, 'Virginia! my own—my beautiful—my lost Virginia! there is but one way to save your maiden purity.' As he ended these words, he plunged the knife into her young heart; then, drawing it forth, and holding it, dropping blood, before the startled decemvir, 'Appius!' cried he, 'by the blood of my child, I devote thee to the gods of hell!'

19. Rushing through the gates of Rome to the camp, with the bloody knife in his hand, he showed himself to his fellow soldiers, and by his tears, his wrongs, and despair, won every heart. They swore to avenge him. The decemviri were deposed, Appius killed himself in prison, as did Oppius; the remaining eight of the decemviri went into voluntary exile, and the infamous Claudius was driven after them. Thus ended the decemvirate, 449 years B. C.

CHAPTER XXIX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The intestine tumults we have related, produced weakness in the state, and confidence on the part of the enemy. The Æqui and Volscians grew so daring as to push their incursions to the very gates of Rome. At this period, the cities of Ardea* and Aricia,† having a dispute about some lands which both claimed, referred the decision

* Ardea, formerly Ardua, a town of Latium, was the capital of the Rutuli. Some soldiers set it on fire, and the inhabitants reported that their city had been changed into a bird called by the Latins *Ardeæ*. It was rebuilt, and became a magnificent city, famous for its enmity to Rome. Tarquin was besieging this place when his son violated Lucretia. A road, called the *Ardeatina*, parted from the Appian road to Ardea.

† Fabled to have been built by Hippolytus, the son of Theseus, after he had been raised from the dead by Æsculapius, and transported into Italy by Diana. In a grove in the neighborhood, Theseus built a temple to Diana, the rites of which were similar to those in her temple at Tauris. No horses would enter the celebrated Arician forest, called *nemorensis*, or *nemoralis sylva*, because Hippolytus had been killed by them. Egeria, the protectress and favorite nymph of Numa Pompilius made this grove her frequent retreat. The grove was on the Appian way, beyond mount Albanus.

to the Roman people and senate. The latter refused, from a sense of justice, to decide; but one Scaptius, an aged man, declaring that the lands belonged originally to the Romans, the people claimed to be the legal possessors, and the litigants departed, vexed at their own folly, and indignant at the flagrant injustice of the Romans.

2. The turbulence of the tribunes increased, and the demands of the people were frequent and loud. They asked for the decree of two laws, one sanctioning the intermarriage of plebeians with patricians; another, making plebeians eligible to the consulship. The senators opposed this for a long time; but, at length, finding that the people only grew more obstinate, they granted the law respecting marriage. This, however, only mitigated their rapacity for a time, and they had recourse to their old custom of not enlisting on the appearance of an enemy.

3. Genetus proposed the election of six governors, three to be chosen from the people, and three from the senate. They were to be invested with consular authority. This proposition pleased the lower classes much; yet so fickle were they that, although many of the plebeians stood as candidates, the choice fell wholly upon patricians. The new magistrates were called military tribunes. Their number, at first three, was finally increased to six. The first that were elected, 445 years B. C., only continued in office three months, the augurs having discovered something amiss in the electoral ceremonies.

4. On the removal of the military tribunes, the consuls again came into office, assisted by two new officers, called censors, who were chosen every fifth year, and whose first election took place 437 years B. C. They made an estimate of the numbers and property of the citizens, and divided them into classes; they degraded senators and knights for misconduct, and reduced plebeians to inferior tribes in punishment of offences. This new office, and its successful operation, together with a triumph over the Volscians, gained by Gaganius, the consul, served to tranquillize and please the public for some time. The first censors were Papirius and Sempronius.

5. The general content was not of long duration. A famine, bearing hardly on the poor, produced their usual complaints against the rich. As these were unheeded, the populace loudly accused the consuls of having neglected to lay in a sufficient quantity of corn; but they, conscious of doing their duty, disregarded the reiterated murmurs of the people, and contented themselves with striving to relieve their necessities.

6. Spurius Mælius, a rich knight, purchased all the corn in Tuscany, and outdid the magistracy in the prodigality with which he distributed it. He was seized with a selfish desire of profiting by the distresses and dissensions of the state, and his house soon became the rendezvous of all who preferred a life of guilty indolence to one of honest, hard-earned independence.

7. After acquiring a large body of partisans, and after having filled his house secretly with arms, he formed a conspiracy, by which, with the aid of some of the tribunes whom he had bribed to act in concert with him, he hoped to subvert the liberties of Rome, and gain the supreme power for himself. The senate, on the discovery of the plot by Minucius, at once resolved to create a dictator, without an appeal to the people, for the purpose of quelling the conspiracy.

8. Cincinnatus, now eighty years of age, was again induced to accept the arduous office. His first procedure was to summon Mælius before him. He refused to obey, and Ahala, the dictator's master of horse, meeting him in the forum, after having vainly employed words of persuasion, killed him on the spot. The dictator applauding this resolute act of justice, ordered the sale of the conspirator's goods, the demolition of his house, and the distribution of his stores among the people.

9. The tribunes of the people, enraged at the death of Mælius, whose conspiracy they favored, at the next election, in order to perplex and punish the senate, insisted upon restoring the military tribunes. On

the ensuing year, however, the government returned to its old channels.

10. The Veians having, for many years, been the determined enemies of Rome, it was resolved by the Romans that Veii should be conquered. The siege, by which it was finally taken, lasted, like that of Troy, ten years; and thence the immense strength of the city may be inferred. In summer only, operations were carried on by the besiegers; in winter, they slept under tents made of the skins of beasts. The features of the siege varied greatly, and the Roman losses of men and equipments were immense.

11. Indeed, so bloody was the siege that it threatened the depopulation of Rome, and a law was made compelling the single men to marry the widows of the soldiers who were slain before Veii. To Furius Camillus, a man of great energy and military talents, was intrusted the sole power of conducting this tedious war. He rose to power without intrigue or solicitation, and as censor, and afterwards as military tribune, his conduct was successful.

12. His courage and abilities, needed at the crisis, inspired others with ambition and confidence, and immense numbers flocked to his standard. With vast labor, he wrought a mine of ample size, which was finally completed, and opened in the midst of the citadel. He then sent to the senate, desiring those who wished to share in the plunder of Veii to repair to the army.

Triumph of Camillus.

13. Giving his men necessary directions for entering the breach, at a signal the citadel and the city were thronged with his legions. Transported at his success, he had a triumph in the style of the Roman kings. His chariot was drawn by milk-white horses, which, being generally devoted to doing honors to the gods, did not fail to disgust most of the spectators.

14. In another expedition against the Falisci, Camillus took their capital city Falerii,* which at first seemed to promise a long resistance. At this siege, a circumstance occurred which reflects great honor on the Roman general. A school-master, having found means to decoy his pupils, the children of the principal men of the city, into the Roman camp, offered them to Camillus as the means of compelling the citizens to surrender.

15. Camillus rejected the treacherous proposal with horror, and, after having expatiated on the blackness of the crime and the insult offered to noble warriors in supposing them capable of warring with innocent children, or making use of their agency, he delivered the traitor, with his hands tied behind him, to the boys, to be, by them, lashed back into the city.

16. This noble conduct of Camillus powerfully affected the inhabitants. They at once submitted to the senate, leaving the terms of the capitulation to the Roman general, who fined them a small sum to satisfy the soldiers, and then admitted them to the protection and alliance of the Romans.

17. The turbulent tribunes, instead of being awed by the distinguished virtues of Camillus, which had procured for him the love and veneration even of the enemies he warred against, daily brought new accusations against him. To the charge of opposing emigration to Veii, they added that of having concealed part of the plunder of that city, particularly two brazen gates, for himself, and summoned him to appear before them.

18. Finding the populace exasperated

* Or Falernium—now *Palari*, a town of Etruria, of which the inhabitants were named Falisci. Some of the Roman laws had there their origin. It was famous for its pastures and for a peculiar kind of sausage.

against him upon many accounts, and despairing of justice, Camillus determined to leave Rome. He took a tender leave of his wife and family, and advanced with a heavy heart to one of the gates, without a friend to accompany or pity his departure. Then, unable to repress his indignation, he raised his eyes to the capitol, and his hands to heaven, and praying the gods that his countrymen might one day be sensible of their injustice, he departed for Ardea, a few miles from Rome, where he trusted to find an asylum.

CHAPTER XXX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The tribunes, who congratulated themselves on the success of their persecutions of Camillus, had not long reason to rejoice, since an enemy soon appeared of so formidable an aspect, as to require the opposing presence of a skilful and bold warrior, like the man they had expelled from his home.

2. The Gauls,* a race of men of a stature superior to that of the Italians, fierce, hardy, barbarous, and prone to emigration, had, invited by the soft serenity of the climate, and the richness of its wines, entered Italy, in the northern part of which they settled, and were now, under the conduct of Brennus, besieging Clusium,† an Etrurian city, the inhabitants of which, fearing the numbers and ferocity of their enemies, entreated the interference of the Roman senate.

3. The senate were willing to send ambassadors to the Gauls, to offer remonstrance, and dissuade them from their projects. For this purpose, three young men of the family of the Fabii were chosen. They were received with a complaisance of which they had believed Brennus incapable, and, when he inquired the reason of their coming, they answered, that to make war without a reason was a custom not much in vogue in Italy, and demanded to be informed in what the inhabitants of Clusium had offended him.

4. Brennus answered, sternly, that the rights of gallant warriors lay in their arms, that the Romans themselves had no just title to many cities which they had conquered and claimed, and that the inhabitants of Clusium had deeply offended him by refusing to give up lands which they had not hands to till, or men to inhabit.

5. The Roman ambassadors were unused to hear the language of a conqueror spoken towards their nation. They went into the besieged city, and took a personal part in a sally, in which Fabius Ambutus killed a Gaul, and was discovered in the act of despoiling him of his armor. Brennus, having represented this unworthy violation of the sacred character of ambassadors, by means of a herald whom he dispatched to Rome, and obtaining no redress, broke up the siege of Clusium, and marched to the capital.

6. In their progress the Gauls committed no outrages, but, breathing vengeance against the Romans, hastened their march. A terrible battle took place, in which the Romans were defeated with the loss of nearly forty thousand men. Panic now seized the people. Many fled to conceal themselves in the neighboring towns, some resolved to perish with their city, and the ancient senators and priests, filled with religious enthusiasm, vowed to devote their lives to atone for the sins of their people.

7. The Gauls gave vent to their exultation at the victory, and remained two days on the field of battle, feasting while surrounded by their slaughtered foes. On the third day, Brennus presented himself at the gates of Rome. He was surprised to find them open. On the defenceless walls no spears bristled, and no trumpet rang. Con-

* Gallia, the country of the Gauls, was called Gallatia by the Greeks. The inhabitants were called Galli, Celtiberi, and Celtoscythæ; by themselves, Celtæ; by the Greeks, Galatæ. Ancient Gaul was divided by the Romans into four parts, called Gallia Belgica, Narbonensis, Aquitania, and Celtica.

† Now *Chinsi*, a town of Etruria, in which Porsenna was buried. In its northern section lay a lake, *Clusina lacus*, which, extending northward as far as Arretium, was connected with the Arnus, which falls into the sea at Pisæ.

ceiving this to be the result of stratagem, adopting all possible precaution, he marched into the city.

8. In the forum they found the senators and priests sitting silently in order. Their venerable looks, their noble forms, their splendid and imposing dresses, awed the Gauls, and they offered them homage as the tutelar deities of the city. At length, a barbarian put forth his hand to stroke the beard of Papirius. The noble old Roman, fired by the insult, lifted his heavy ivory sceptre, and struck the brute to the ground. This was the signal for a commencement of that indiscriminate slaughter which spared neither sex nor age for three days, during which, if the Gauls ever ceased to murder, it was when they pillaged and set fire to the buildings of Rome, all of which were reduced to ashes.

9. The capitol still held out, although the garrison was in extreme distress, and the army of Brennus, hemming it in, cut off all hopes of communication with any external friends. Brennus hoped to reduce them by famine; but, to prove the futility of his expectations, the Romans, although in extreme want, threw some loaves into the enemy's camp.

10. At length, a Gaul informed his leader that he had discovered some footsteps up the rock by which they might gain the citadel. The Gauls ascended in the night, and would have succeeded, had not the garrison been awaked by the screams of some geese which, as sacred to Juno, had been kept in the temple of that goddess. Manlius,* a brave patrician, was the first to start forth. Exerting all his strength, he flung two Gauls over the precipice, and, assistance coming, the attack was repulsed.

11. It was soon agreed by the leaders on both sides, that the Gauls should immediately quit Rome on receiving a thousand pounds weight in gold. On the confirmation of the agreement by oath, the gold was produced; but in the weighing, the Gauls kicked the beam. On the Romans complaining, Brennus insultingly threw his heavy sword and belt into the scale, and said the portion of the vanquished was suffering.

12. While deliberating on the payment, Camillus appeared at the head of a large army with which he had hastened to the succor of his countrymen. On learning the cause of the contest, 'Take back,' said he, 'the gold to the capitol; it is the custom of the Romans to ransom themselves with iron, not with gold. As dictator, the stipulation of price lies with me, and I will purchase emancipation with my sword.' In the battle which ensued, the Romans were victorious, and the Gauls completely routed.

13. So great was the destruction caused by the Gauls, that of all Rome, which now lay in ashes, there remained but the capitol. Many of the inhabitants had sought refuge in Veii, and thither the tribunes urged the removal of the remainder. But Camillus persuaded the people to go resolutely to work, and Rome began to raise her head anew. For the bravery of Manlius, they built him a house near the scene of his exploit, and allowed him a fund for his support. Manlius was ambitious not only of equalling Camillus, but of being sovereign of Rome.

14. The senate, aware of the designs of Manlius, created Cornelius Cossus dictator, as a curb upon the other. Cossus, having finished an expedition against the Volscians by a speedy triumph over them, returned to summon Manlius to an account of his conduct. Manlius, however, had too firm a hold upon the affections of the people to be at all affected by Cossus, and the latter was obliged to surrender his office. Manlius fomented the seditions of the people, the very dregs of which he mustered beneath him, insinuating that there should be a new order of things, and no distinctions in the state.

15. At this crisis, Camillus, being chosen one of the military tribunes, appointed a day for Manlius to answer for his life. When the charges of sedition and of aspiring to the sovereignty were fixed upon him, he lifted his eyes and pointed to the capitol. In the sight of this, the people

* Marcus was his surname. The exploit related in the text gained him the epithet of Capitolinus.

would not condemn him; but when removed to the Peteline grove, he was found guilty, and thrown from the Tarpeian rock. His family were forbidden to assume the name of Marcus, and his house was ordered to be razed to the ground.

16. Thus the Romans continued to go forward, their internal peace frequently disturbed by tumults and seditions, and their enterprises without the walls generally successful. Great emergencies always called forth great men from among them, and, guided by a blind superstition, they would, at the instigation of their priests, perform the bravest actions. Thus it is related, that when a gulf had opened in the forum, which the augurs affirmed would never close until the most precious things of Rome were cast within it, Quintus Curtius leaped into the pit, clad in armor and mounted on his horse, exclaiming that nothing was more precious than patriotism and military virtue. It is said that the gulf closed over him immediately, and Quintus Curtius was seen no more.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The Romans, having triumphed over the Sabines, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, the Æqui and the Volscians, were bent upon the subjugation of the Samnites, a powerful people descended from the Sabines. Their country was about one hundred miles from Rome, and forms part of the present kingdom of Naples. The charge of this important warfare fell upon the two consuls, Valerius Corvus and Cornelius.

2. Valerius was a commander of distinguished military talents. He was surnamed *Corvus*, from a remarkable combat in which he killed a ferocious Gaul of gigantic stature, assisted by a *crow*. While he marched to the relief of Capua, the capital of Campania,* his colleague led an army against Samnium,* the chief city of the enemy. Hardened by their reverses, and inspired by the hopes of retrieving their fortunes, the Roman soldiers were now invincible.

3. Although the Samnites were the bravest foes the Romans ever met, their defeat was complete. They fled from the fierce looks and gallant daring of their opponents. The other consul, Cornelius, was not, at first, as successful as his colleague: he had unwarily led his army into a defile, but was saved by Decius, a tribune of the army, who gained possession of a hill, in consequence of which the enemy were defeated with a loss of thirty thousand slain. The triumph over the Samnites took place, 343 years B. C.

4. A war soon broke out between the Romans and the Latins, and Manlius Torquatus, the consul, feeling that the parties were liable to confusion in battle from having the same language and manners, determined to insure success by preserving the strictest discipline. Prior to joining battle with the enemy, he issued an order forbidding any soldier, upon pain of death, to issue from his ranks.

5. When both armies were prepared to join battle, Metius, the leader of the Latin cavalry, rode forward to the Roman lines, and challenged any knight to combat. Titus Manlius, the consul's son, was the only one who dared to disobey orders. He rode forth, and encountering Metius, unhorsed him, and slew him as he supported himself upon his shield.

6. With the arms of the vanquished, he presented himself in the tent of his father, anticipating a favorable reception. The consul, however, turned away and ordered him to be led into the presence of the army. He there addressed him with a

* Campania, of which Capua was the capital, was bounded by Latium, Samnium, Picenum, and part of the Mediterranean sea. It is noted for its fertility and beautiful scenery. Capua is supposed to have been founded by Capys, the companion of Anchises. This splendid, luxurious, and opulent city, was termed *altera Roma, another Rome*. Here it was that the soldiers of Hannibal, after the battle of Cannæ, became enervated by luxury.

* Samnium was a seaport town. The country of the Samnites was situated between Picenum, Campania, Apulia, and the ancient Latium.

stern voice, but tearful eyes: 'Titus Manlius,' said he, 'regarding neither the authority of the consulship, nor the commands of a father, thou hast set an example both of public and of private disobedience. Thy conduct forces me to make a sacrifice either of my son or of my country. May the gods forbid that I should hesitate which to prefer. Go, lictor, bind the prisoner, and let his death be our future warning.'

7. When the Roman army saw the blood of their brave young champion staining the axe, they broke into groans and execrations. His body was carried forth and buried with all military honor, adorned with the spoils of the vanquished. The battle, which in the mean time joined, raged with fury.

8. The issue of the conflict was for some time doubtful. The augurs having declared that the salvation of the Romans depended upon the sacrifice of the leader of that part of the army which should find itself worsted, Decius, seeing his own division fail, determined to devote himself.

9. By the direction of Manlius, who was chief pontiff, he devoted himself with the proper words and ceremony. First, with his head covered, and with outstretched arms, clad in a long robe, and standing on a javelin, he gave himself up to the infernal and celestial gods, for Rome: then, arming and springing on his horse, he rushed among the enemy, carrying slaughter into their ranks, and finally fell, covered with wounds.

10. The Roman army, taking his death for an assurance of success, fought with prodigious valor, and the Latins were entirely defeated. This battle pretty much decided their fate, and two years after, Pædrum, their strongest city, being taken, they submitted entirely to the Romans.

CHAPTER XXXII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Pontius, general of the Samnites, took advantage of the refusal of the senate to grant them peace, by forming a stratagem to regain what force had compelled them to lose. He led his army into a defile called Claudium, and guarding all its outlets, sent a few private soldiers in the dress of shepherds, with directions to meet the Romans, seemingly by chance.

2. The Roman consul, meeting these men, and not penetrating their disguise, was told, in answer to his inquiry respecting the route of the Samnites' march, that they had gone to Luceria, a town of Apulia,* which they were then besieging. The Roman general at once hastened in the direction of that place, and was not aware of the stratagem until he found himself completely encircled by enemies.

3. The Roman army, divested of their armor and weapons, were compelled to pass under the yoke, to agree to leave the Samnite territories, and subscribe to the terms of the former confederacy. On their arrival at Rome, grief and resentment prevailed throughout the city, which was put in mourning for the humiliating and unfortunate event. This took place, 332 years B. C.

4. This unfortunate occurrence was but a slight cloud on the fiery glory of the Romans, and their success against the Samnites soon retrieved their fame. Under the command of Papirius Censor and of Fabius Maximus, they triumphed, and, forty years after the death of Decius, his son sacrificed himself in the same manner for his countrymen.

5. The Samnites, despairing of the success of their own arms unaided, now sent for assistance to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus,†

* Apulia, now *Puglia*, was situated between Daunia and Calabria. It formed part of the ancient Magna Græcia, and was commonly divided into Apulia Daunia, and Apulia Peucetia. It was noted for its superior wools. It is conjectured that its name was derived from Apulus, an ancient king who ruled the country before the Trojan war. Luceria was the Apulian town which furnished the finest wool.

† A country situated between Macedonia, Achaia, and the Ionian sea; at first governed by kings, of whom Neoptolemus, son of Achilles, was one of the first. Afterwards it was united to Macedonia, and finally a part of the Roman empire It is now called *Larta*.

a monarch of ability, power and ambition, who warmly desired to follow, in all things, the example of his predecessor, Alexander. He at once sent the Samnites a body of three thousand men, under the command of Cineas, a distinguished soldier and a pupil of Demosthenes, and himself soon after put to sea with three thousand horse, twenty thousand foot and twenty elephants.

6. Upon arriving at Tarentum,* and finding the inhabitants devoted to luxury and pleasure, he taught them to imitate the self-denial of true warriors, and closed the places of public amusement, that his contemplated reform might be uninterrupted by temptations. The Romans were likewise on the alert, and taking the necessary steps to insure security and success, dispatched the consul Lævinus with a large army to intercept the advance of Pyrrhus.

7. Lævinus was a courageous, but impetuous and hasty man. To an ambassador whom Pyrrhus sent to negotiate between the Samnites and Romans, Lævinus replied that he neither recognised him as a mediator, nor feared him as an enemy. The two armies encamped on opposite sides of the river Syris, over which Lævinus hastily threw his cavalry, which was instantly charged as it mounted the bank, by Pyrrhus with his chosen horse.

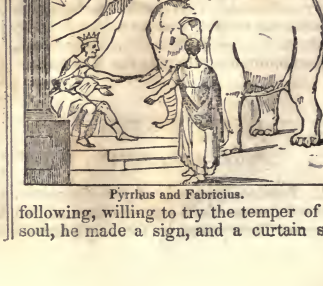
8. The Roman legions crossed the stream with difficulty, but fought with fury on their arrival at the scene of conflict. In the heat of the engagement, Pyrrhus sent in his famous elephants, whose enormous size and tower-crowned backs startled even the brave warriors on whom they rushed. Pyrrhus then made a bloody charge with his fine Thessalian cavalry, which completed his victory.

9. The Romans had fifteen thousand slain and eighteen hundred taken prisoners. But the victory was dearly purchased by a wound of Pyrrhus, and a loss of thirteen thousand of his men. The conqueror affirmed that one more such victory would ruin them. He expressed great admiration on seeing the slaughtered Romans, reposing with their feet to the foe, and their mortal wounds all in front. 'Such men,' he said, 'I would engage to lead victorious throughout the world.'

10. After the victory, he sent his friend Cineas, who was famous for his eloquence, to treat with the humbled enemy; but the orator found that neither honeyed words nor bribes could beguile submission from the Romans. He returned to Pyrrhus, saying that the senators were demi-gods, and the city their fit temple.

11. At the head of an embassy from Rome, sent to negotiate concerning the ransom and exchange of prisoners, came Fabricius, an ancient senator, whose poverty, contentment, and integrity had gained him the favorable regard of his countrymen. Pyrrhus received him with marked kindness, and was resolved to try how far he had been justly spoken of by fame.

12. He offered him on a certain day rich presents, which were refused; and, on the



Pyrrhus and Fabricius.

following, willing to try the temper of his soul, he made a sign, and a curtain sud-

* Tarentum, Tarentus, or Taras, a town of Calabria, situated on a bay of the same name, near the mouth of the river Galesus. It was founded or rather repaired by a Lacedæmonian colony under Phalanthus, 707 years B. C. It for a long time maintained its superiority over thirteen tributary cities. The people were luxurious and indolent, and their sensual cravings being supplied by the products of Greece, the *delights of Tarentum* became proverbial. Tarentum was for some time the residence of Pythagoras, whose mild precepts gave the citizens a superiority over others in private life as well as in the field. The harbor of Tarentum was a theme of praise with the ancient historians. Its present name is *Tarluto*, and the present inhabitants have not degenerated from the character of their ancestors, being idle and effeminate. They live principally by fishing.

denly rising, disclosed to view an enormous elephant, an animal which the Roman had never seen. Fabricius smiled, and said to the king, 'Your elephant of to-day has no more influence over my mind than your gold of yesterday.'

13. Pyrrhus released him the Roman prisoners, intrusting them to Fabricius alone, upon his promise that, should the senate remain bent on continuing the war, he should have the privilege of reclaiming them. About 280 years B. C., when the Romans had recovered from a defeat, and the consuls Sulpicius and Decius were placed at their head, the war was renewed with the adventurous and formidable Pyrrhus.

14. The campaign was finished by a battle fought near Asculum,* in which, as the panic created by the elephants had worn off, and the armies were about matched in point of number, the contest might be considered equal. But again did the charge of the elephants and the skill of the Greeks prevail. The Romans retreated with the loss of six thousand men; but they left the impress of their valor with the army of Pyrrhus, who lost four thousand warriors.

15. After an interval of two years, Pyrrhus, whose army had been increased by fresh levies, sent one division to oppose Lentulus, the Roman consul, while he himself, at the head of the second, marched to attack Dentatus, the other consul. Pyrrhus, intending to surprise the Romans by night, struck into the woods from which he could extricate his troops only at daylight, which showed them the army of Dentatus in battle array. The contest between the hostile vanguards was decided in favor of the Romans.

16. In the general engagement which followed, Pyrrhus vainly employed his elephants. The Romans, now acquainted with their nature, drove them back with fire-balls made of flax and rosin. The soldiers of Pyrrhus were trodden down by their terrified brute auxiliaries, and the camp of the king fell into the enemy's hands. The Grecian monarch had twenty-three thousand of his soldiers slain.

17. Pyrrhus, finding formidable enemies and faithless friends in Italy, resolved to leave it. Informing the Tarentines that he was promised speedy assistance from Greece, and leaving a small garrison in Tarentum to save appearances, he regained his country undisturbed, bearing thither the shattered remains of his forces. Thus the Pyrrhic war ended after six years' duration.

18. Two hundred and sixty-six years B. C. the Romans first coined silver, and the following year the number of inhabitants was discovered to amount to two hundred and ninety-two thousand two hundred and twenty-four.

* Now *Ascoli*, a town of Picenum.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The Romans, seeing themselves successful at home, longed to push their conquests beyond the natural limits of their empire, and gladly took hold of a pretext for declaring war against the Carthaginians. This people possessed a large share of Sicily, and only waited for internal dissensions, to seize upon the whole island. Hiero, king of Syracuse, which was yet unconquered, entreated their aid against the Mamertines,* a little people of the same country, and they sent him supplies.

2. The Mamertines, to avoid destruction, on finding themselves threatened by so formidable a power, applied for protection to the Romans, who, rejecting them

* The Mamertini were mercenary soldiers, who, at the request of Agathocles, came from Campania, to Sicily. They were in the pay of Agathocles, and claimed the right of voting at the election of magistrates. This being opposed, they had recourse to arms, and for their sedition were ordered to quit Sicily. On their way to the coast, they were kindly received by the inhabitants of Messana, whose hospitality they repaid by murdering the males and marrying their wives and daughters. They then called the town *Mamertina*, a provincial word meaning *martial*, and themselves, *Mamertini*.

as too feeble allies, at once made war upon Carthage, and the first Punic war, as it was called, began 264 years B. C.

3. Carthage,* founded by a Phœnician colony, stood near that part of the African coast now occupied by Tunis. It was founded about one hundred and thirty-seven years before Rome. Strong in its fleets, which held undisputed sway upon the seas, obtaining immense riches by its commerce, it had gradually extended its dominions over a long range of coast.

4. The Carthaginians were possessed of wealth, while the Romans, poor and needy, were distinguished by their patriotism and courage. Although having no fleet, while the ships of the Carthaginians were celebrated, they resolved that this deficiency should be remedied. A Carthaginian vessel being stranded on the Italian coast, the consul Duilius, commending this as a model, commanded the construction of an armament.

5. Duilius was the first Roman who went forth with a fleet; but, in an engagement with the enemy, he was completely victorious, the Carthaginians losing fifty of their ships, and their claim to the sovereignty of the seas.

6. Sicily was to be conquered only by humbling Carthage, and Regulus and Manlius put to sea with a fleet of three hundred sail, carrying forty thousand men, with the intention of making an invasion. They were met by as powerful a fleet, in the management of which the Carthaginians displayed a superior skill. But though successful at a distance, when the Romans grappled, victory was theirs. The enemy's fleet was dispersed, and fifty-four ships taken. An immediate descent upon the coast of Africa, the capture of the city Clupea* and of twenty thousand men, were the fruits of this brilliant and distinguished victory.

7. In consequence of this signal success, the senate recalled Manlius to Italy, to superintend the Sicilian war, while Regulus, following up his good fortune, gave battle to the Carthaginians, and once more defeated them. In despair, more than eighty of their towns surrendered. In this emergency, the Carthaginians sent to Lacedæmon, and engaged Xantippus, a brave warrior and experienced general, to conduct them.

8. After a prolonged resistance, the Romans were completely defeated, and Regulus himself made prisoner. They met also with other distresses, in the loss of their fleet during a tempest, and in the taking of Agrigentum,† their principal Sicilian town, captured by Karthalo, the leader of the Carthaginians. A new fleet shared the fate of the former. The inexperienced mariners ran it on the quicksands, and shortly after the greater part went down in a storm.

9. The Carthaginians, thinking to procure peace on better terms than those formerly proposed by the victorious Regulus, led their noble prisoner from his dungeon, and sent him to his countrymen to treat with them for peace. They thought that his long confinement would make him ready to persuade the Romans to acquiesce in the proposed discontinuance of hostilities, which event would give him freedom. They therefore exacted a promise that, if he proved unsuccessful, he should return to the dungeon in which he had already passed four years.

10. The old general, on his approach to

* Carthage was long the capital of Africa, and the mistress of Spain, Sicily, and Sardinia. The Carthaginians were governed as a republic, and had two magistrates, chosen annually, invested with regal authority. They were very superstitious, and so unnatural as to offer human victims to the gods. They bore the character of being faithless and treacherous, and the proverb, *Punica fides*, alluding to the little reliance to be placed on Carthaginian fidelity, is well known.

* Clŭpea, or Clypea, now *Aklibia*, a town of Africa Propria, twenty-two miles east of Carthage. Its exact resemblance to a shield, *clypeus*, procured its name.

† Now *Girgenti*, a town of Sicily, situated on mount Agragas. Some assert that it was founded by a Rhodian, and others, by an Ionian colony. The inhabitants were famous for their hospitality and luxury. The government was first monarchical, and afterwards democratical. Agrigentum still possesses more antique remains than any other Sicilian town.

Rome, was surrounded by his friends, who urged him to enter the city and revisit his little dwelling. But the old man was sternly resolute; he was, he said, but the slave of the Carthaginians, and as their ambassador he must wait without the gates to be received there by the senate, as was customary.

11. Regulus, on the arrival of the senate, opened his mission as directed by the Carthaginian council, and their ambassadors seconded him. The senate, weary of the long-continued war, were inclined to peace; but when it remained only for Regulus to give his opinion, his voice was for war.

12. Astonishment and admiration seized his auditors, when they heard the venerable general argue so ably against the measure which was to free him. He relieved their embarrassment (for they could not decide on the course he recommended,) by breaking off the treaty, and rising to return to his confinement, which he did without embracing his wife Marcia, and his dear children, who filled the city with their lamentations.

13. Furious and disappointed at learning the course pursued by Regulus, the Carthaginians determined to punish him by every torture. They first cut off his eyelids, and a few days afterwards brought him forth and exposed him to the burning sun. At length, when wearied with devising arts to give him agony, they threw him into a barrel stuck through with sharp spikes, pierced by which the unfortunate and noble Roman died, 251 years B. C.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The minds of both parties were exasperated. The Romans were furious at the treatment of Regulus, and the Carthaginians at the refusal of the terms of peace which they demanded. Hostilities were renewed with redoubled ardor; but the courage and perseverance of the Romans prevailed.

2. Fabius Buteo, the consul, gained a victory over a large squadron of the enemy; but Lutatius Catulus obtained a triumph yet more complete, in which he vanquished a greater number of the Carthaginians, and the naval power of that people seemed to end with the destruction of one hundred and twenty ships.

3. Another heavy loss compelled the Carthaginians to treat for peace, which was granted by the Romans on precisely the same conditions which were demanded by Regulus, when victorious at the gates of Carthage. 1. Carthage was to pay a thousand talents of silver to defray the expenses of the war, and one thousand two hundred more in the course of ten years. 2. The Carthaginians were to quit Sicily and give up all claim to such islands as they possessed in its vicinity. 3. They were never more to war against the allies of the Romans, or enter the Roman territories with a ship of war. Lastly, all prisoners and deserters were to be given up without ransom. On these terms ended the first Punic war, 240 years B. C., which had lasted twenty-four years.

4. The war being ended, an undisturbed peace ensued, and in six years the temple of Janus was shut for the second time since the building of Rome. The people cultivated a taste for poetry; but while fostering the arts of peace, they were by no means forgetful that their natural disposition was warlike, and they should make preparations for taking the field.

5. The Illyrians* having for a long time plundered the merchants of the Mediterranean, had the ill luck to commit depredations on some of the subjects of Rome, and a war ensued, which terminated in the surrender of almost all the Illyrian towns, and the payment of a yearly tribute for the remainder.

6. The Gauls, thinking a time of peace seasonable for an invasion, invited some allies from beyond the Alps, and wasted the country with fire and sword, 225 years B. C. When they came within

* Illyricum, Illyris, and Illyria, a country bordering on the Adriatic sea, opposite Italy. It now forms part of Croatia, Bosnia, and Sclavonia.

three days' march of Rome, a prætor and consul, skilled in the arts of war, went out against them, and were enabled to surround and almost annihilate them. Forty thousand were slain, and ten thousand taken prisoners.

7. After this victory, Marcellus gained another battle, in which he slew the Gallic king, Viridomarus, and gained royal spoils a third time for Rome. It must be borne in mind, however, that the Gauls were destitute of military science, and had nothing but their naked bodies to oppose to the shock of well-armed men. The Romans, having compensated their former ill-success, looked around for some enemy worthy of their arms.

8. The Carthaginians having besieged Saguntum,* a city of Spain, which had been in alliance with Rome, an embassy was sent to Carthage by the Romans, demanding the surrender of Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, who had advised the measure. As this demand was refused, both parties prepared for the second Punic war.

9. Hannibal, who was now intrusted with the direction of the Carthaginian operations, in his youth was brought by his father to the altar, and induced to take an oath of eternal enmity against the Romans, swearing to oppose them until he, or they, should cease to exist.

10. Having overrun Spain, leaving his conquests in that country to be guarded by Hanno, he levied a large army, composed of different nations, and having crossed the Pyrenean† mountains into Gaul, he traversed that hostile and wild country rapidly and in ten days came to the foot of the Alps, over which he was to find a passage into Italy.

11. Undismayed by the appearance of the snow-clad mountains, (for it was now mid-winter) or by the wild and ferocious inhabitants who were dressed in skins, in fifteen days Hannibal made the passage, with the loss of half his army, and compelled Publius Scipio, who had been sent by the Roman senate to oppose him, to retreat.

12. The second battle, fought upon the river Trebia,* was equally unfortunate in its result to the Romans, twenty-six thousand of whom were either killed by the foe or drowned in the passage of the stream. The Romans sustained a third defeat at lake Thrasymenus,† where Flaminius and fifteen thousand men were slain, and six thousand surrendered to the enemy.

13. On the news of the last defeat, the senate made Fabius Maximus, a man of courage and caution, commander, with absolute authority. He determined to conquer the Carthaginians by harassing them, and managed to surround the army of Hannibal among the mountains, where it was impossible for them to pass the winter, and whence they were equally unable to extricate themselves.

14. Hannibal, by stratagem, accomplished a retreat. He caused burning faggots and torches to be tied to the horns of two thousand oxen, and these rushing in various directions, made Fabius believe that the whole army was preparing for attack, while, profiting by the success of his scheme, Hannibal retreated, with considerable loss, however, in his rear.

15. When Fabius laid down his office, Terentius Varro and Æmilius Paulus were chosen his successors. Varro was a man sprung from the lowest class of the people, with nothing but wealth and vanity to recommend him. Æmilius was a gallant

* Or Saguntus, a town of Hispania Tarraconensis, at the west of Iberus, about one mile from the seashore, now called *Morviedro*. It was founded by a colony of Zacynthians, and by some of the Rutuli of Ardea. Saguntum was noted for the clay of its neighborhood, from which *pocula Saguntina*, the Saguntine cups, were made.

† The Pyrenæi, a ridge of high mountains extending from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean sea, and separating Gaul from Spain. It received its name, as was supposed, from Pyrene, a daughter of Bebrycius, or from the fire, (πυρ—*pūr*) which raged there, kindled by shepherds, but increasing to such an extent that the silver mines of the mountains melted, and the shining metal poured down in rivers. Strabo deems this a fabulous account.

* A river of Cisalpine Gaul, rising in the Appenine, and falling into the Po, at the west of Placentia.

† A lake near Perusium, and now called the lake of *Perugia*.

leader, possessed of caution and experience, and imbued with a thorough contempt for the pretensions of his plebeian colleague.

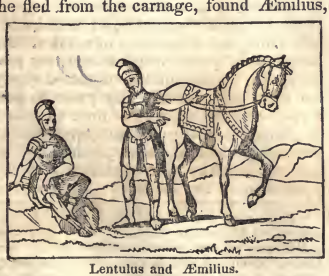
CHAPTER XXXV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. At the village of Cannæ,* Hannibal, with forty thousand foot, and half that number of horse, awaited the approach of the Roman consuls, who led on an army of ninety thousand men. The generals agreed to share the authority, one of them commanding on one day, and the other on the next. Æmilius being commander on the first day of their arrival, appeared unwilling to engage, but the ensuing day, Varro gave the signal for a general battle.

2. The Romans attacked the centre of the Gauls and Spaniards; but Hannibal, ordering these men to fall back, surrounded the devoted assailants with his chosen Africans, and their destruction was insured. The vain boastings of Varro ceased, and Æmilius, severely wounded, spurred his horse to the charge so long as he could keep his seat; but weakness finally obliged him to dismount.

3. Lentulus, a tribune of the army, as he fled from the carnage, found Æmilius,



Lentulus and Æmilius.

covered with blood, sitting on a stone, awaiting the arrival of the pursuers.

* A small village of Apulia. The spot on which Hannibal defeated the Roman consuls, is called the field of blood.

'Æmilius,' cried the noble tribune, 'you are guiltless of this bloody work. Take my horse and fly.' 'I thank thee, Lentulus,' replied the wounded man, 'there is but one thing left for me, to die upon the field. Go to the senate, tell them to fortify Rome against the conqueror—tell Fabius that Æmilius living, approved his advice, and dying, sanctioned it. Farewell.'

4. Before Lentulus was out of view, he saw the gallant Roman fall before multitudes of enemies. The Roman loss in slain amounted to fifty thousand, and Hannibal is said to have sent to Carthage three bushels of gold rings taken from the fingers of dead Roman knights.

5. After the consternation which this event created at Rome had subsided, the senate created a dictator. Varro, who abandoned the remains of his army, and came to the city, was received with respect. Fabius and Marcellus were appointed to lead the armies against Hannibal, and refused the peace he offered, unless upon the condition of his leaving Italy. That conqueror determined to winter at Capua.

6. At the siege of Nola,* Hannibal met with the first loss he had experienced in Italy, Marcellus, the prætor, making a successful sally. Afterwards, in attempting to raise the siege of Capua, he was repelled with considerable loss, by the Romans in their trenches. When he made a pretence of besieging Rome, he found an overwhelming force waiting to receive him, and retired, 209 years B. C.

7. The Carthaginian senate deputed his

* An ancient town of Campania, founded by a Tuscan, or, according to some, an Eubœan colony. Some curious anecdotes are connected with Nola. It is said that Virgil had introduced the name in his Georgics; but being refused a glass of water by the inhabitants, he blotted out the word and substituted *Ora*, in the 225th line, 2d book, of Georgics. Augustus died there on his return from Neapolis to Rome. In the beginning of the fifth century, St. Paulinus, a bishop of the place, who died A. D. 431, invented bells, whence they were called *Nolæ* and *Campanæ* in Latin. Some imagine bells to have been a previous invention, and merely introduced into the churches of Nola by Paulinus. Prior to his time, congregations were called together by large wooden rattles, called *sacra ligna*.

brother Asdrubal to go to his assistance with a large body of Spaniards; but being betrayed by his guides into the hands of the consuls, Nero and Livius, who were on the alert, his whole army was cut to pieces. On the very night on which Hannibal expected the succors, by order of Nero, the head of Asdrubal was thrown into his brother's camp. This seemed an omen of further ill-fortune.

8. The Roman arms in other quarters were successful. Marcellus took the Sicilian city of Syracuse, although defended by the fires and machines of the noted Archimedes, who was slain at his studies, much to the grief of the Roman general, who ordered him to be honorably interred, and erected a tomb to his memory.

9. In Spain, although two Scipio's were killed, the hopes of the Romans revived under the conduct of Scipio Africanus, who, though but twenty-four years old, was almost the equal of Hannibal in military science, and greatly his superior in the arts of war. Having lost his father in Spain, he seemed to have a natural claim to war against that country.

10. Returning victor from Spain, he became consul at the age of twenty-nine. Instead of attacking Hannibal in Italy, he resolved to threaten the capital of the Carthaginians, while their bravest defenders were away. Hanno, who opposed the young warrior in Africa, was defeated and slain. Syphax, who led up an army against him, was kept at bay until Scipio found an opportunity to fire his camp, when, attacking the enemy in the confusion occasioned by the conflagration, the Romans killed forty thousand men, and captured six thousand.

11. Terrified at the success of Scipio, and fearing everything from his future fortune, the Carthaginians sent an order to recall Hannibal to his country, in order to oppose the Roman general, who threatened now to besiege Carthage. Hannibal took tearful leave of Italy, of the most fertile parts of which he had kept possession for over fifteen years.

12. Arrived at Leptis,* in Africa, he thence marched to Adrumetum,† and at length approached Zama,‡ which was within five days' journey of Carthage. Scipio, now joined by six thousand horse, under the command of Masinissa, advanced to meet his rival, sending back Hannibal's spies to him, with leave to tell all they had seen in the camp through which they had been conducted.

13. Hannibal attempted to put an end to the war by negotiation; but from a conference, the two generals retired to prepare for the arbitration of the sword. In the great battle which followed, Hannibal made a more skilful disposition of his forces than he had ever done before. But part of his calculations were defeated by the conduct of his elephants, which, wounded by the slingers and bowmen, turned upon their drivers, fell upon the wings which were composed of cavalry, and disabled and disordered them.

14. The heavy infantry of both sides joined, but the superior weight and force of the Romans compelled the Carthaginians to give way, and Masinissa, returning from pursuing the cavalry, completed their destruction. Twenty thousand men were killed, and as many taken prisoners.

15. After having done all that lay in his power, as a brave and skilful man, to avert defeat, Hannibal retired to Adrumetum with a small squadron of cavalry. By the treaty of peace which this victory produced, the Carthaginians stipulated to pay ten thousand talents in fifty years, to give hostages for the delivery of their ships and elephants, to restore all the territories to Masinissa, which had been taken from him, and only to make war in Africa with the permission of the Romans. Thus, seven-

* There were two cities of this name in Africa: one, called *Major*, now *Lebida*, built by a Tyrian or Sidonian colony, the other, called *Minor*, now *Lemta*, about eighteen Roman miles from Adrumetum. It paid every day a talent, by way of tribute, to Carthage.

† A town of Africa on the Mediterranean, built by the Phœnicians.

‡ Or Zagma, a town of Numidia, three hundred miles from Carthage.

teen years after its commencement, ended the second Punic war, 149 years B. C.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The military operations of the Romans were very extensive, for while at war with Hannibal, they were carrying on hostilities against Philip, king of Macedonia. The inhabitants of Rhodes, and Attalus, king of Pergamus,* joined against him. He attempted to take possession of Thermopylæ, but was driven thence by Quintus Flaminius, experiencing a heavy loss. He was admitted to make peace after being defeated in Thessaly, whither he had fled for refuge, by paying five hundred talents immediately, and five hundred in the course of ten years. The Romans then restored the liberty of Greece.

2. Five years after the fortunate termination of the Macedonian war, another was declared against Antiochus, king of Syria. To obtain peace, he too late offered to quit all his European places, and such of the Asiatic as professed an alliance with Rome. He was forced, however, to defend himself.

3. Scipio, conscious that his own men were as superior in courage and discipline, as they were inferior in numbers to the enemy, saw, with satisfaction, Antiochus range his army, which consisted of seventy thousand foot and twenty thousand horse. The havoc made among these was dreadful, and great loss was occasioned by the chariot of the king, armed with scythes, which was driven back upon his own men.

4. Antiochus gladly procured peace of the Romans on their own terms. He agreed to give up his European possessions, all in Asia on that side of mount Taurus,* and to deliver up Hannibal, who had taken refuge at the Syrian court, where he was at first received kindly, and made admiral of their fleet.

5. Having taken refuge at the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, he was demanded by Æmilius, a Roman general; and Prusias, willing to conciliate the Romans by a flagrant violation of the rites of hospitality, placed a guard over Hannibal, intending to deliver him up.

6. The poor old general, sooner than fall into the hands of his abhorred enemies, finding all means of safety denied, determined to escape from his foes and life together, and, taking poison, expired, as he had lived, with the most determined bravery. His death is said to have taken place 187 years B. C.

7. A second Macedonian war was declared against Perseus the son of Philip, who had secured his accession to the throne by the murder of his brother Demetrius, and, pleased with fancying triumphs, declared war against Rome. In the three years' war, the unskilfulness of Perseus prevented his taking advantage of the many opportunities which offered of cutting off the Roman army.

8. Æmilius at length gave him a conclusive defeat near the river Enipeus.† Perseus attempted to escape into Crete, but, abandoned by all, unwillingly surrendered himself, and was forced, as a captive, to grace the splendid triumph of the Roman victor.

9. Masinissa, the Numidian, made some incursions upon the territories of Carthage, which were repelled by the Carthaginians;

* A kingdom founded by Philœterus, an eunuch, to whom Lysimachus intrusted his treasures after the battle of Ipsus. The capital was famous for a library of two hundred thousand volumes, a noble collection made by different monarchs. It was transported by Cleopatra, with the permission of Anthony, to Egypt, where it enriched the Alexandrian library, most fatally destroyed by the Saracens. Parchment was first invented and used at Pergamus, because Ptolemy, king of Egypt, had forbidden the exportation of the papyrus from his kingdom, in order to prevent Eumenes, one of the kings of Pergamus, from making as choice a library as that of Alexandria. Hence parchment has been called *charta Pergamena*. Galen, the physician, and Apollodorus, the mythologist, were born there.

* In point of extent, the largest mountain in Asia. One of its extremities is in Caria, and it reaches not only as far as the most eastern extremities of Asia, but it also branches into several parts, and runs far into the north.

† A river of Thessaly, flowing through Pharsalia.

this was considered as an infraction of the treaty by the Romans, who sent an ambassador to make a complaint. Finding the city in a flourishing condition, he reported that there was an absolute necessity for war, and the consul set out with a determination of destroying Carthage.

10. In vain did the Carthaginians offer a complete submission to their hard-hearted victors; they were ordered to leave their city that it might be levelled with the ground. Finding the consuls unyielding, they prepared to fight and die for the preservation of their home.

11. Their luxurious vessels of gold and silver were now converted into arms, the women parted with all their ornaments, and even with their hair, which was used in making strings for the bows. Asdrubal, who had been imprisoned for opposing the Romans, was led forth to head the army, which proved successful in many engagements without the walls, disheartening their enemies, and finally making them doubtful of success.

12. Even Scipio Æmilius, the adopted son of Africanus, would have failed of success, had he not found means to corrupt Pharneas, the Carthaginian master of horse, who came over to his side. When the city was entered, and the forum taken, a most shocking spectacle was presented to the eyes of the victors. Houses were falling, feeble and mangled forms emerging from the carnage, and dying wretches bewailing their own ruin, and the destruction of their country.

13. Thus perished, in the year 147 B. C., one of the most renowned cities in the world for arts, opulence, and extent, having, at one time, the superiority over Rome. In the same year, Corinth was destroyed by the consul Mummius; and not long after, the inhabitants of Numantia,* one of the strongest cities in Spain, to avoid falling into the hands of Scipio, fired their city, and perished in the conflagration to a man. Spain, then a province of Rome, was thenceforth governed by two prætors, chosen annually.

* A town of Spain, near the sources of the river Durius.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The spoils of the immense territories subjected to the Romans, introduced among them a taste for luxury and corruption. The first who called the public attention to this subject were Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, who proposed a renewal of the Licinian law, which enacted that no person should possess more than five hundred acres of land.

2. This law found determined enemies among the rich, and they resolved to interrupt the course of proceedings as much as possible, although the law finally passed. While Gracchus was addressing the citizens in the capitol, a tumult arose, and on raising his hand to his head to signify that his life was in danger, the partizans of the senate gave out that he wanted a crown, and while attempting to save his life by flight, Saturnius, one of his colleagues in the tribuneship, killed him with the fragment of a seat. Three hundred of his hearers shared his fate, being killed in the tumult.

3. Caius Gracchus, the brother of Tiberius, was at this time living in retirement, and while appearing to avoid popularity, was employing his time in the cultivation of eloquence; and when he thought himself qualified to serve his country, he obtained the quæstorship of the Sardinian army.

4. A king of Numidia sent a present of corn to the Roman people, saying that it was wholly a tribute to the virtues of Caius Gracchus. The senate treated this message with the utmost scorn, and ordered the ambassadors who brought it to return, as they came, like ignorant barbarians. Young Gracchus, informed of this circumstance, returned from the army, complained of the injustice which had been done him, and, contrary to the wishes of the senate, was made a tribune of the people.

5. He procured an edict bestowing freedom upon the inhabitants of Latium, and soon afterwards upon all the people on that side of the Alps; he fixed the price of corn

at a certain moderate rate, and obtained a monthly distribution of it among the people. He then proceeded to a fearless examination of the charges brought against the senate, and the whole body being convicted of bribery, extortion, and traffic in public offices, Gracchus obtained a law appointing the knights judges of corrupt magistrates, instead of the senate.

6. The senate hated Gracchus for his power and popularity, and set up in opposition to him one Drusus, who gradually estranged the minds and hearts of the people from the former leader. Gracchus found them faithless friends. In vain did he revive the Licinian law, and in vain did he bring up inhabitants from different towns to support him; the senate ordered them all away from Rome, and went to the extremity of imprisoning one whom Gracchus had invited to live with him.

7. The consul Opimius, confiding in his guard, and in the superior numbers of his party, took occasion to insult Gracchus whenever he passed him, and endeavored to bring about some retaliation which should serve as an excuse for dispatching him. Gracchus, however, refused even to carry arms, and refrained from all recrimination.

8. Flaccus, his friend, a zealous tribune, determined to oppose party to party, and on one occasion, a lictor could not help exclaiming to the party of Fulvius, 'Ye factious citizens, make way for honest men!' These words so enraged the persons to whom they were directed, that they slew the lictor on the spot, and Gracchus, reproving the unbridled zeal of his partisans, led them to mount Aventine.

9. Here he learned that a proclamation had been issued, offering for his head and that of Flaccus their weight in gold. He endeavored to negotiate with the senate, and sent to them the youngest son of Flaccus, then a child, but with no avail; they were bent on his destruction, and offered pardon to all who would leave him.

10. This produced the wished-for effect; his followers gradually fell away, and left him with a very inadequate force. Opimius, thirsting for slaughter, fell upon the party at mount Aventine, and three thousand citizens were slain. Flaccus sought refuge in a ruinous hut, in which he was found, and killed with his eldest son.

11. Gracchus, retiring to the temple of Diana, resolved to die there by his own hand; but his dear and faithful friends, Pomponius and Lucinius, forced him to fly. Coming from the temple with his two generous friends and a Greek slave, the party attempted to cross a bridge leading from the city; but the pursuit of their enemies compelled them to turn and face the danger.

12. Pomponius and Lucinius were soon slain in the defence of Gracchus, who sought refuge with his slave in a grove beyond the Tiber. Here the slave, urged by his unfortunate master, killed him, and then sacrificed himself on the body.

13. When the corpse was found, the head was cut off, and elevated on a spear-head as a trophy. One Septimuleius extracted the brains, and filling the cavity with lead, procured from the consul, as its weight, seventeen pounds of gold. Thus perished Caius Gracchus. The Gracchi appear to have been unjustly accused of fomenting sedition. They were apparently true patriots, who preferred death to yielding up the interests of those whose cause they had espoused.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The circumstances attending the Jugurthine war prove beyond a doubt the enormous corruption which the Roman manners had undergone. Jugurtha, the grandson of Masinissa, finding that Hiempsal and Adherbal, the sons of the late king, stood between him and the throne of Numidia,* murdered the elder of these brothers.

* Numidia now forms the kingdom of *Algiers* and *Bildulgerid*. It was bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, south by Getulia, west by Mauritania, and east by a part of Lybia, called Africa proper. The inhabitants were called *No-*

2. The younger applied to the Roman senate for protection; but Jugurtha corrupted this body with gold, and they declared him innocent, and decreed to him the right of ruling half the kingdom. Jugurtha then put the surviving brother to death, and to avert war, went in person to Rome, and, having again bribed the senate, was again declared guiltless.

3. A pursuance of this course, however, drew down upon his head the fearful vengeance of the Romans. Betrayed into their hands by his father-in-law, he was dragged in chains to Rome, where, having graced the triumph of Marius, the consul, he was confined in a dungeon, and there starved to death.

4. After the Jugurthine war, occurred that of the allied states of Italy, entered into to procure the rights of citizenship, which were finally granted to such confederates as promised to return tranquilly to their allegiance. This was followed by the civil wars, when Marius and Sylla, rivals and enemies, were at the head of the republic.

5. Sylla, while engaged in carrying on the war against Mithridates in Asia, received an order for his return, which he refused to obey, and found his soldiers ready to support his conduct. They clamored to be led against Rome to avenge the cause of liberty.

6. Sylla led the soldiers on, and entered Rome sword in hand. Marius and his partisans escaped with precipitation, and Sylla and his faction triumphed for a while. But during the absence of Sylla at the Mithridatic war, Marius returned, and uniting his forces with those of his warm partisan Cinna, laid siege to Rome.

7. After a massacre of all who were opposed to them, Marius and Cinna proclaimed themselves consuls without even the show of an election. Marius, in a fit of intoxication, died soon after. Returning to Italy after a glorious campaign of victory in Asia, Sylla, aided by Cethegus, Verres, and young Pompey, defeated his enemies in battle, and was created dictator.

8. Sylla's entry into Rome was accompanied by a massacre of the most frightful description, and a proscription which was intended to exterminate every enemy that Sylla had in Italy. Invested with an absolute authority, the duration of which was unlimited, he now found himself without a rival to oppose him.

9. However, he enacted many excellent laws, and passed many wise regulations; he organized rules with regard to the elections of all the principal officers of state, and endeavored to provide safeguards against the oppressive abuse of power. He voluntarily resigned his authority, and retired to private life, dying soon after his resignation, about 78 years B. C.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The mutual jealousy of Pompey and Crassus excited new disturbances in the state after the death of Sylla, and finally resulted in the famous conspiracy of Catiline The first jealousy was perceptible in the disbanding of their victorious troops. Neither was willing to commence: Crassus was the first, stifling his resentment, to give up his command, and Pompey, soon after, followed his example.

2. They strove which should obtain the greatest popularity with the people. On the one hand, Crassus, with unrivalled prodigality, entertained the populace at a thousand tables, and, for the space of nearly three months, supported them: while, on the other, Pompey labored incessantly to abolish all the laws which had been made to contract the power of the people. He revived the decree which gave to the Roman knights the right of judgment, and restored to the tribunes all their former power.

3. Pompey, by the extermination of the pirates who had for a long time infested the Mediterranean, gained great renown for his country and himself; but while

mades, and afterwards *Numidæ*. The Numidians were excellent warriors, and generally sought to engage in the night. They rode their horses without saddle or bridle: hence their epithet, *infræni*, *unbridled*.

abroad victorious, an event took place at home by which Rome was placed in the greatest danger, and her fame and fortunes threatened. This was the conspiracy of Catiline.

4. Lucius Sergius Catilina, (familiarly called Catiline,) belonged to a noble family, which he disgraced by his crimes. He was accused not only of dishonoring a vestal virgin, but of murdering his own brother; and for the latter crime he would have been brought to trial, had not the enormity of his treason absorbed all consideration of his other offences.

5. Catiline collected around him a throng of debauched, unprincipled, and factious nobles, with men of other classes; his house became the scene of their revels, and they had soon compromised their safety in his interests. The plan agreed upon was, that a general insurrection should be raised simultaneously in all parts of Italy; that they should set fire to Rome, into which, in the midst of the chaos, Catiline, with a powerful army, should march from Etruria and massacre the senators.

6. To render their oaths more inviolable, the conspirators drank the blood of human victims slain for the purpose. Lentulus was to preside at the councils, Cethegus at their murders; while Cicero, from whose mind and activity they feared the greatest opposition to their designs, was to be murdered in his bed. He, however, induced a woman named Fulvia, to obtain the secret from her lover, one of the conspirators; and, with this information, hastened to warn the senate, and prepare for the defence of the city.

7. They first offered a large reward for further discoveries, and then prepared for public defence. Catiline boldly presented himself to the senate, and declared his innocence; but he was unable to bear up against the withering eloquence of Cicero, and left Rome by night for Etruria, where Manlius was raising an army for him.

8. Cethegus and Lentulus, who remained in Rome, were seized and executed. Catiline, on learning the apprehension and death of his fellow conspirators, attempted to escape into Gaul, but finding himself completely encircled by determined opponents, he resolved to throw his army of twelve thousand men into battle, and make a last desperate effort for success and life. His troops fought with bravery worthy of a just cause; but they were completely destroyed and routed by Petreius, the lieutenant of the consul Antonius, he being at the time sick. In this action Catiline died, the year B. C. 63.

9. Of the battle, Sallust, who has written an elegant and forcible account of the conspiracy, remarks: 'On the termination of the conflict, you might justly estimate the recklessness and bravery which prevailed throughout the ranks of Catiline. The body of each soldier occupied in death the spot which he had chosen during the combat. A few whom the prætorian cohort had charged, lay more dispersed, but yet with all their wounds in front.'

CHAPTER XL.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Pompey, crowned with laurels which he had acquired in the East, ere the lustre of his European and African fame was dimmed, returned to Rome, where the variances between him and Crassus appeared to threaten protracted revolutions and disturbances. At this juncture, after an absence passed in prosperity, Julius Cæsar returned to Rome.

2. This extraordinary man was possessed of great talents, both for military and civil life. In Spain he had been quæstor, ædile, grand pontiff, and prætor. He resolved to profit by the existing state of things. Professing a warm interest in the welfare of the people, he first offered his services to Pompey, and was kindly received by him; Crassus, already on favorable terms with him, was disposed to become yet more his friend. Representing the uselessness and folly of their rivalry, he procured a meeting and a reconciliation, and the three, uniting their authority, the triumvirate, as it was called, began.

3. Cæsar, upon entering the triumvirate,

at once commenced the furtherance of his projects for empire. He obtained a legal division of the public lands among the citizens. He next shared the foreign provinces with his confederates. Pompey chose Spain; Crassus, Syria; but Cæsar selected Gaul, which was then filled with fierce and warlike people.

4. Numerous were the battles which Cæsar fought during the process of subjugating states in his various expeditions, which lasted eight years. He first conquered the Helvetians,* slaying twenty thousand of them, but sending back the survivors to their native forests. The Germans† lost thirty thousand men, and their princes escaped with life in a boat across the river Rhine.‡

5. Such was the slaughter of the Belgæ,§ that marshes and streams were rendered passable by their slain. From the Nervians,‖ however, who fell upon the Romans with great fury, their army stood in danger of defeat, till Cæsar, catching up a buckler, rushed through his troops, plunged amidst the enemy, and caused them to be cut off.

6. The Celtic* Gauls, a naval nation, were next brought into subjection. Having overcome the Suevi,† Menapii,‡ and all nations from the Mediterranean to the British sea, Cæsar passed into Britain The inhabitants, terrified, sued for peace, which he granted upon the delivery of some hostages.

7. His fleet, however, having been partly destroyed by a storm, they took advantage of this disaster to renew hostilities, but were again conquered, and again begged peace, which was granted as before. Cæsar then returned to the continent, having in nine years conquered all the country between the North sea and the Mediterranean, besides subjugating Britain.§

8. Cæsar, aware of the jealousies of Pompey, by way of trying his temper, and that of the senate, solicited the consulship, and prolongation of his government in Gaul. The senate were now devoted wholly to the interests of Pompey, and they recalled the two legions of Cæsar's army, which belonged to Pompey, home. But Julius, although he knew this was done with the intention of diminishing his power, having attached the officers by benefits, and the soldiers by donations, permitted their return.

9. The term of Cæsar's government having nearly expired, the senate ordered him home, and directed him to resign the command of his army. Curio, Cæsar's friend, proposed that Pompey should first set the example. A rumor circulating, that Cæsar was beyond the Alps, marching on the city

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* The Helvetii were an ancient nation of Gaul, whose country is the modern Switzerland.

† The Germans, *Germani*, inhabited Germania, a large country at the east of Gaul. They were fierce, warlike, uncivilized and superstitious. They erected no temples to their gods. They paid the greatest respect to women, whom they considered as possessed of a spirit more than human. Their warriors and heroes were regarded and remembered with veneration.

‡ The Rhine, anciently called the Rhenus, one of the largest rivers of Europe, divided Germany from Gaul. It rises in the Rhætian Alps, and falls into the German ocean. It was considered as a barrier between the Romans and Germans, and bore upon its banks a long range of castles. Cæsar was the first to cross it. The Rhine was held sacred by the Germans. They used to throw their children into its stream, to brace their nerves or to prove their worth. If the child sank, it was considered as a degenerate scion, but if it swam, acquired their confidence and affection.

§ A warlike people of ancient Gaul, separated by the rivers Matrona and Sequana, from the Celtæ.

‖ The Nervians were a warlike people of Belgic Gaul. Their country now forms Hainault.

* A nation that inhabited the country between the ocean and the Palus Mæotis. Though the name of Celtæ was anciently applied to the inhabitants of Germany and Gaul, it was given more particularly to the inhabitants of Gallia Celtica, which was situated between the rivers Sequana and Garumna, now the Seine and Garonne.

† A people of Germany between the Elbe and the Vistula.

‡ A people of Belgic Gaul near the Mosa.

§ Britain was discovered to be an island by Agricola, who circumnavigated it. It was a Roman province till the four hundred and forty-eighth year of the Christian era. The inhabitants, in the time of Cæsar, used, after the manner of our Indians, to paint their bodies, to render them more terrible in the eyes of their enemies.

with his whole force, the consul went to the house of Pompey, presented him with a sword, and commanded him to oppose Cæsar, as the enemy of the commonwealth. Pompey expressed his readiness to obey.

10. Cæsar, who was still in Gaul, was willing to cover his proceedings with the show of justice. Favoring the management of his friends at Rome, he declared that he was ready to lay down his command as soon as Pompey. The senate indignantly rejected this proposal. Cæsar still delayed an open breach. From Ravenna,* a city of Cisalpine Gaul, whither he marched from the Alps, with his third legion, he sent a letter to the consuls, declaring anew his readiness to resign all power, if Pompey would do the same. The senate decreed Cæsar, in case of his refusal unconditionally to surrender his government, an enemy of the commonwealth.

11. The self-possession of Cæsar was eminently conspicuous the night before his expedition into Italy. Sitting at his table, he cheerfully conversed upon various subjects of literature and philosophy, for which he had a taste. A portion of his army had been dispatched to a place near Arminium, a city on the confines of Italy, whither he went in his chariot by night.

12. He joined his army, five thousand strong, in the vicinity of the Rubicon, a little river which separates Italy from Gaul, and which was considered by the Romans as the sacred boundary of their domestic empire. Aware of the consequences of the step he was about to take, Cæsar paused for a long while upon the banks of the river, absorbed in deep and melancholy consideration, and preserving total silence. Ambition was now contending with patriotism, public with private feelings; but the struggles of his mind were not permitted to betray themselves upon his countenance.

13. Calling to him one of his generals, he said, "If I pass this river, I shall bring misery upon my country. If I pause, I am undone myself." He then plunged into the river, calling on his soldiers to follow him. They obeyed. The die was cast. Cæsar passed the Rubicon and made himself master of Arminium. The news of this event spread consternation, all imagining that he came to lay the city in the dust, and, like an unrighteous spirit, to exult amid the conflagration, the ashes and the ruins of Rome.

* Situated on the Adriatic, and celebrated under the Roman emperors for its capacious harbor, capable of containing two hundred and fifty ships; and for some time being the seat of the western empire. It stood on a small peninsula, and, as Martial tells us, was so ill supplied with water, that the element sold at a higher price than wine. It was founded by a colony of Thessalians, or, as some imagine, Sabines. It is now a wretched town, four miles from the sea, surrounded by marshes. By Cisalpine Gaul, the Romans understood that part of Gaul which lay in Italy, and by Transalpine, that beyond the Alps, in regard only to the inhabitants of Rome.

CHAPTER XLI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Pompey left the whole of Italy in the power of his formidable rival, without a town or army to oppose his victorious progress. Cæsar, finding that his own want of ships prevented him from pursuing Pompey, went back to Rome to secure the public treasure, which had been unguardedly left in his way.

2. The door of the treasury was guarded by Metellus, a tribune, who, upon Cæsar's presenting himself, refused him entrance.

Metellus guarding the Treasury.

Cæsar, placing his hand upon his sword-hilt, threatened to kill him, adding, 'it is

easier, young man, to do than to say this.' The tribune, influenced by the threat, retired, and Cæsar took from the treasury three thousand pounds of gold, and a vast quantity of silver.

3. Having the necessary funds for the prosecution of the war, he marched upon Pompey's lieutenants, Afranius and Petreius, who had been a long time in Spain, commanding an army composed of tried veterans, who had been victorious under all their leaders. At first, he was unsuccessful, but by hunger and drought, he reduced them to the necessity of yielding. He returned to Rome, after having, in forty days, made himself master of the whole of Spain. He was created by the citizens dictator and consul, but resigned the first office in eleven days.

4. Pompey, meanwhile, was in Epirus and Greece, making formidable preparations for opposing Cæsar. All the eastern monarchs declared themselves in his favor. He possessed in Italy nine effective legions; he had a well-equipped fleet of five hundred sail under Bibulus, an active and experienced commander, and was supplied with provisions, and all the other necessaries of an army, by the tributary provinces.

5. Numbers flocked daily to him from Rome. At one time, two hundred senators were with him, and among others, Cato and Cicero, themselves a host, who gave his cause great weight, by their earnest approval. He had beaten Antony and Dolabella, the former of whom he compelled to fly, and the latter, took prisoner. Thus fortune, at first, declared in his favor, but his fate depended upon the issue of the hostile meeting between him and Cæsar.

6. The armies first came in sight of each other on the opposite banks of the Issus.* Pompey was unwilling to hazard a battle, and Cæsar, although urged to conflict by the impatience and confidence of his soldiers, resolved to await the arrival of his reinforcements. They at length landed amidst the congratulations of the army, and Cæsar found himself enabled to put his troops in motion.

7. Pompey found himself compelled to retreat, and accordingly fell back upon Asparagus,* where his fleets which coasted Epirus could bring them the necessary supplies in abundance. Cæsar's army were employed in works calculated to straiten and confine their foes, while Pompey's men made every endeavor to enlarge and strengthen their position. Possessing the superiority of numbers, they annoyed Cæsar's army by means of their arrows and missiles.

8. Cæsar, however, was incessantly engaged in providing means of defence. He erected blinds or mantles, made of the skins of wild beasts, under cover of which his men were able to work safely; and he also prevented the enemy from getting supplies of water, or forage for the horses of their cavalry. Thus circumstanced, Pompey determined to break through his lines.

9. Ordering his choicest infantry, his best slingers and bowmen, on board his ships, he gave them directions to attack the enemy's camp by sea, where it was least defensible. Cæsar seeing his design of blocking up the enemy frustrated, resolved, at every hazard, to force Pompey into an engagement. The battle commenced by an attempt to cut off a legion posted in a patch of wood, and a general engagement soon followed.

10. The contest was fierce and animated, but the troops of Cæsar, entangled in the old lines of intrenchment, and pressed into the ditches and against the mounds, gave way in helpless disorder. Pompey, seeing his advantage, pushed them hard. Numbers perished in the trenches and on the banks of the river, and the victorious general pursued the routed forces as far as the camp of Cæsar.

11. That commander, whose defeat was by no means ruinous, marched immediately to Gomphi,† a Thessalonian town, the inhabitants of which had promised him

* A river of Macedonia, falling into the Ionian sea between Dyrrachium and Apollonia.

* A town near Dyrrachium.

† Near the sources of the Peneus.

obedience, one who, on learning his mischance at Dyrrachium,* shut their gates upon him. He was not, however, discouraged, but resolved to punish their perfidy; and firing his soldiers by a description of the wealth of the place, he captured it in a few hours. Making no pause, however, he went onward to Metropolis, which yielded without contest, and in a short time became master of all Thessaly, with the exception of Larissa.

12. Larissa was garrisoned by a legion under the command of Scipio, who held the place for Pompey. The latter, continually assailed by the importunities of his officers to give battle to the enemy, at length resolved, against the dictates of his better judgment, to comply with their wishes. He marched, a few days after the surrender of Gomphi, into the plains of Pharsalia,† where, on being joined by Scipio, he resolved to decide the fate of the empire by a single engagement with Cæsar, whose arrival he awaited.

CHAPTER XLII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Cæsar, having previously ascertained that his soldiers were confident and willing to engage again with Pompey's troops, led them into the plains of Pharsalia. The two armies, though differently situated and influenced, arrived at the same conclusion. The soldiers of Pompey, confident in their numbers, thought only of the enjoyment of the victory; those of Cæsar considered the means of gaining it. On the one hand, there was a reliance on the combined skill of several leaders; on the other, a confidence in the resources and abilities of a single commander. The men of Pompey put faith in the justice of their cause; those of Cæsar alleged their many overtures for peace. Thus the reasons and the views of both parties were different; but their animosity and ambition were the same.

2. Cæsar, ever active and alert, led out his troops in battle array; but Pompey, either placing little reliance in his men, or fearing an unfortunate result, kept back within his well-chosen position. Sometimes, indeed, he drew out of his camp, but always remained under his trenches, and near the hill which overhung his post. Cæsar, aware that he was better able to bear fatigue than his enemy, resolved to harass and wear out the forces of Pompey, and therefore gave orders to decamp.

3. When the tents were struck, word was brought that Pompey's army had drawn out farther from their entrenchments than they had done before, and were posted in an advantageous position for attack. Cæsar then ordered a halt, and, with a countenance beaming joy, advanced to his soldiers, and informed them that the joyful moment had at length arrived, which was to terminate the fatigues of the previous campaign, with a victory which would open to them a most brilliant future.

4. In point of numbers, the armies were far from being equally matched. Pompey had forty-five thousand foot, and seven thousand horse; Cæsar, not more than twenty-two thousand foot, and one thousand horse. The deficiency of his cavalry had indeed filled him with anxiety, but he had remedied it, by training some of his nimblest and bravest foot-soldiers to fight between the ranks of horse; they had been victorious in a skirmish some days previous, and, in fact, Cæsar's one thousand equalled his adversary's seven thousand horse.

5. Pompey's hopes of success principally rested on his powerful and numerous cavalry, which he thought would outflank and surround the enemy. Labienus approved the plans of Pompey, and still further to animate and assure his soldiers, he swore not to return to the camp unless triumphant. Under so favorable an aspect did this distinguished general lead out his troops to combat.

* Now *Durazzo*, a large city of Macedonia, bordering on the Adriatic, and founded by a colony from Corcyra, B. C. 623: anciently called Epidamnus.

† In the neighborhood of Pharsalus, a town of Thessaly.

6. His order of battle was extremely good. Upon his two flanks, and in his centre, he posted his trusty and valiant veteran troops; the fresh levies he placed between the main body and the wing; Scipio, commanding the Syrian troops, held the centre; Domitius Ænobarbus headed the Spaniards on the right; the two legions which Cæsar had restored, were upon the left, and led by Pompey himself; because, with them he intended to make the decisive attack—hence, in this quarter he assembled his horse, slingers, and archers, of which the right wing did not stand in need, being covered by the river Enipeus.

7. Domitius Calvinus commanded Cæsar's centre, Mark Antony his left; while he himself led on the right wing which was to oppose Pompey's left. Pompey showed the reliance he placed in the discipline of Cæsar by putting himself at the head of the two legions trained by him, while Cæsar commanded his own tenth legion, whose military fame was owing to his own instructions.

8. As soon as Cæsar perceived where the enemy's horse had congregated, and upon what point of his own army they proposed to act, he made a draught of six cohorts from his rear line, and hiding them behind his right wing, commanded them, on the approach of the hostile cavalry, not to fling their javelins in the customary manner, but to push them directly in the faces of the horsemen, who, being mostly young Roman nobles, priding themselves upon their beauty, would endure anything to avoid an injury of their features. He lastly ordered the cavalry to cover the tenth legion, and the third line to await his signal for advancing.

9. As the armies made ready for battle, the two generals went about among their troops to encourage and inspire them with confidence and bravery. Pompey addressed his troops, with firmness and eloquence. 'It is not,' he said, 'without reason, that I anticipate a victory. You are possessed of every advantage of numbers and vigor, besides having been successful within a few days. These advantages will secure you an easy triumph over men whose age enfeebles them, whose fatigues have worn them down, whose numbers are few, compared with yours, and who have recently sustained a dispiriting defeat. Besides all these considerations, you have a just cause. Supported by your greatest patriots, the world looks upon you with enthusiasm, wishing you success; while he against whom you contend, is an adventurer and an enemy to the liberties of his country, who, almost overwhelmed with crime and despair, will fall a speedy sacrifice.'

10. Cæsar, in his addresses to his army, possessed a serene countenance and a calm voice. He spoke frequently of his desire for peace, deplored the deaths of the many brave men that he knew must fall upon both sides, and lamented the wounds which his country must sustain whatever the event of the battle might be. His soldiers listened to him with admiration, and burned for the signal of attack. As there was just a sufficient space for fighting between the armies, Pompey ordered his men to sustain the first attack without giving ground.

11. The word upon Pompey's side was Hercules the Invincible; upon Cæsar's, Venus Victrix, or Victorious. The troops of Cæsar advanced impetuously; but perceiving their enemies to stand motionless, they halted for a short time in their fiery career. The iron-breasted legions gazed upon each other with terror and severity, but without quailing. Again arose the cry of Venus the Victorious, and, discharging their javelins, Cæsar's troops drew their swords and rushed to the attack.

12. Pompey's soldiers followed the same course, and sustained themselves with bravery and vigor. Now Pompey ordered his vast multitude of horsemen, slingers, and archers to charge, and the troops of his enemy gave way directly. It was then that Cæsar brought forward the six cohorts of reserve, with their javelins levelled at the hostile horse. 'To their faces!' shouted Cæsar sternly.

13. The cohorts plunged their javelins as directed, and the cavalry were checked immediately. The young nobles, terrified

at the hideous wounds inflicted by this new mode of fighting, thought only how they might save their faces. The cavalry fled with the greatest precipitation and disorder to the neighboring mountains, and the archers and slingers, left to their fate, were speedily cut to pieces.

14. Pompey's troops sustained bravely the charge of Cæsar in the flank, until he brought up his third line. Pompey's infantry, thus assailed by fresh troops in front, and furiously attacked in the rear by the victorious cohorts, could keep up the battle no longer, and fled to their camp. Cæsar, when assured of victory, generously called out to spare the Romans, but pursue the strangers; the former accordingly laid down their weapons, and their safety was secured.

15. The auxiliaries fled to the camp for shelter, and there the greatest carnage took place. The battle had lasted from break of day till noon, and, following up their victory, they routed the cohorts who were left to guard the camp, and who soon fled to the mountains. Cæsar, on seeing the field covered with the corpses of his countrymen, was deeply affected, and exclaimed mournfully, 'They would have it so.'

16. The camp was found to contain a profusion of articles of luxury, and seemed to give no evidence that a preparation for a battle had been made. Cæsar's loss was two hundred in slain; Pompey's, fifteen thousand Romans and auxiliaries. Twenty-four thousand surrendered prisoners, and the greater part entered Cæsar's army. His clemency in the use of his victory was great. To those Roman knights and senators who fell into his hands, he gave permission to retire whither they chose. Some letters to Pompey from persons who wished to be thought neutral, being found in the camp, Cæsar burned them unread. Sending for the legions which had passed the night in the camp to relieve the pursuing squadrons, he arrived the same day in Larissa. The battle of Pharsalia, so important in its influences and results, was fought in the year 48 B. C.

CHAPTER XLIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. During the battle of Pharsalia, when the promising cavalry on which he placed his entire confidence was routed, Pompey lost his reason. Without thinking of making an attempt to remedy the disorder, he returned to his camp, which was soon attacked. On learning this, he exclaimed, 'What! are we pursued to our very intrenchments?' Then, perceiving that his heavy armor was unsuited to his circumstances, he changed it for a light dress, and mounting a fleet horse, fled away to Larissa.

2. Passing through the vale of Tempe,* he followed the river Peneus, and passed the night in a fisherman's hut. Thence, leaving the shore in a bark, he soon descried a ship of some size preparing to sail. Getting on board this vessel, he was treated by the master with all the respect due his late rank. Finding his affairs at Amphipolis desperate, he sailed thence for Lesbos to take in his wife Cornelia, whom he had left there at a distance from the seat of war.

3. Cornelia had for a long time indulged herself in picturing the safety and triumph of her husband. The news of his reverse, conveyed by the tears rather than the words of Pompey's messenger, overwhelmed her with agony. When the man told her that she must haste if she would see her husband, that he had but one vessel, and that not his own, the force of her disappointment was so great that she fainted, and lay for some time inanimate.

4. On recovering her senses, she sprang to her feet and fled fleetly through the city to the sea. Pompey clasped her in his arms in silent despair, and the vessel bore away to the south-east, stopping only to take in provisions at the ports by which it lay its course. Pompey determined to ap-

* A valley in Thessaly, between mount Olympus and Ossa, through which the river Peneus flows into the Ægean. So celebrated was it for its beauty, that all pleasant vallies are termed *Tempe* by the poets.

ply to Ptolemy, king of Egypt, a young man whose father he had befriended.

5. Ptolemy being a minor, the government was in the hands of Photinus, an eunuch, and Theodotus, a rhetorician, who determined that Pompey should be invited on shore, and slain at landing. Achillas, commander of the forces, and Septimius, formerly a centurion in Pompey's army, were deputed to receive him. Accompanied by some others, they rowed off in a small bark to Pompey's ship, which lay about a mile from shore.

6. Cornelia wept bitterly as she took leave of Pompey. Repeating a couplet of Sophocles, signifying that whoever trusts in a tyrant becomes a slave, he gave his hand to Achillas and stepped into the boat, accompanied by two attendants. As they preserved a strict silence, he was willing to commence the conversation, and observed to Septimius, whose countenance he recognised, 'My friend, methinks we have been fellow-soldiers once.' Septimius answered only by a nod, and Pompey, taking out the sketch of a speech to the king which he had prepared, occupied himself in reading it until they landed.

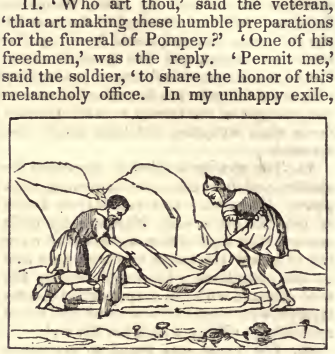
7. Cornelia watched the progress of her husband with intense anxiety. As she saw the people crowding to the shore, she hoped he would meet with a favorable reception; but her hope was of brief duration. As he rose, supported by the arm of his freedman Philip, Septimius stabbed him in the back, and Achillas seconded him.

8. Pompey, seeing no hope of escape, resolved to die with decency. He covered his face with his robe, and resigned himself with a sigh to fate. At this distressing spectacle, Cornelia shrieked so loudly as to be heard on shore. The mariners did what was best in her distressing situation; the land-wind coming off strong, they raised their sails, and fortunately eluded the pursuit of the swift Egyptian galleys.

9. Pompey's murderers cut off his head, in order to embalm it, and preserve it as a present for Cæsar; but the body they left naked on the sea-shore, exposed to the view of all whom curiosity led thither. Philip, the freedman, hovered near the dishonored but loved remains of his brave but unfortunate master.

10. When the crowd was dispersed, the faithful freedman washed the body carefully in the sea, and then sought materials for a funeral pile. These he met with in the rotten remains of an old fishing-boat. As he was building a pile, he was addressed by an old Roman soldier, who had served under Pompey in his youth.

11. 'Who art thou,' said the veteran, 'that art making these humble preparations for the funeral of Pompey?' 'One of his freedmen,' was the reply. 'Permit me,' said the soldier, 'to share the honor of this melancholy office. In my unhappy exile,



Funeral of Pompey.

it will be a last sad comfort to think that I have been able to aid in the funeral of my old commander, and to touch the corpse of the bravest Roman general that ever breathed.'

12. The last rites were shared between them: the ashes, carefully collected, they placed under a little heap of earth, scraped together with their hands. Over this last sad resting-place was afterwards erected a tomb, with the following inscription: '*He whose merits deserve a temple, can now scarcely find a tomb.*' He died B. C. 84.

CHAPTER XLIV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Cæsar pursued Pompey to Alexandria in Egypt, where he landed with about

four thousand men. He soon heard of the assassination of Pompey, and when his head was presented to him, he turned away, with horror, and poured forth a flood of tears. He caused a tomb to be erected to the memory of his unfortunate rival, and near the place of his death, a temple to Nemesis, the goddess who punished those who were cruel to unfortunate men.

2. Photinus, it is said, attempted the life of Cæsar, who dissembled his indignation until his army was reinforced, and mixed in the banquets and amusements of the city. The sovereignty of Egypt was then a subject of contest between Ptolemy and Cleopatra, his sister, who, according to an impious law of the country, was his wife. She shared the power with him, but sighed for the entire command.

3. Cleopatra and Arsinoe, her younger sister, had been banished to Syria; but the former came to Alexandria to plead her cause. The brilliancy of her mind and the beauty of her person first struck Cæsar: her unlimited caresses completed his captivation. He made war upon Ptolemy, who was killed, and Egypt subjected to the Roman arms.

4. Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, raised a revolt in the Asiatic provinces, and Cæsar was forced to march thither to subdue it, which he did with the greatest alacrity. This expedition was described by Cæsar to the Roman senate in three words, *Veni, vidi, vici*—I came, I saw, I conquered. Italy being yet disturbed by the partisans of Pompey, Cæsar returned home.

5. During the absence of Cæsar he had been created dictator for one year, consul for five years, and tribune of the people for life. His friend, Mark Antony, during his absence, had been very imprudent; the city was a scene of debauchery and confusion, and the presence of Cæsar was absolutely necessary.

6. By his prudence and mildness, he soon restored tranquillity. Having restored his authority at Rome, he went with a small party to Africa, where Scipio and Cato had rallied the remains of Pompey's partisans and troops, assisted by Juba, king of Mauritania. Cæsar, being joined by the remainder of his army, soon took the field against them.

7. Scipio shortly after received a decisive defeat, which was obtained by the victor with little or no loss. His generals, Juba and Petreius, killed each other in despair. Scipio, attempting to escape by sea into Spain, fell in with the enemy and was slain. Cato, of all the leaders, alone remained.

8. This extraordinary man, who bore prosperity and adversity with equal stoicism, after the defeat of Pharsalia, traversed burning deserts with the remains of Pompey's army. He was now in Utica,* where, with a love even for the show of Roman liberty, he had assembled the chief citizens into a senate, and resolved to defend the town.

9. His friends, however, did not continue to feel that ardent love of liberty which inspired his breast. He therefore advised some of them to seek safety by the sea; others, to trust to the clemency of Cæsar. Having supped with his friends, he retired to his apartment, where he behaved to his son and intimates with his ordinary tenderness.

10. On finding himself alone, he lay down, and taking up Plato's dialogue on the immortality of the soul, he read it

Cato stabbing himself.

attentively for some time. Casting his eyes upon his bed, he found that his sword

* Now *Sateor*, a noted city of Africa, on the coast of the Mediterranean, on the same bay as Carthage. Founded by a Tyrian colony two hundred and eighty-seven years before Carthage.

had been removed. He called his domestics, and insisted upon their restoring it. His son, with tears in his eyes, besought him to change his determination, but, meeting with a stern reproof, was silent. When he received his sword, he observed that he was master of himself; and on being again alone, stabbed himself through the heart.

11. Upon the death of Cato, and the termination of the African war, Cæsar returned to Rome, where the splendor of his triumph eclipsed all which had preceded it. It lasted four days; the first of which was for Gaul, the second for Egypt, the third for his Asiatic victories, and the fourth for his success over Juba in Africa. His veteran soldiers, with scarred bosoms and crowned with laurel, followed their general to the capitol.

12. On each of his veterans, Cæsar bestowed a sum equivalent to five hundred dollars of our money; to his centurions he gave twice, and to his officers four times that amount. The citizens also were entertained at twenty thousand tables. Intoxicated with pleasure, they sought what new titles and honors they should bestow upon the victor.

13. He was created *magister morum*, or master of the morals of the empire; was styled its emperor and father; and, in short, upon him alone were heaped all honors and rewards, while his person was held sacred. He used his power for the public good. He created laws to restrain the prodigal luxuries of the rich; he secured the right of judicature to the knights and senate alone; he gave rewards to such as had many children, and took the most prudent methods to re-people the city, which the late commotions and wars had almost depopulated.

CHAPTER XLV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. By the activity and perseverance of Cæsar, tranquillity was secured to the citizens, and this being accomplished, he found himself obliged to set out for Spain to oppose Sextus and Cneius, the sons of Pompey, who, with Labienus, his former general, had raised an army. Proceeding with wonderful celerity, he appeared before the enemy even while they thought him still in Italy.

2. The sons of Pompey resolved, after the manner of their father, to protract the war. After taking a number of cities, Cæsar forced them to do battle upon the plains of Munda. The shock of the conflict was dreadful, and the soldiers of Cæsar were beginning to yield, when he rushed forward, exclaiming, 'What! are you going to sacrifice your general, grown gray with fighting at your head, to a parcel of boys?' The tenth legion, animated by this address, charged furiously, and obtained the victory.

3. In this battle fell thirty thousand men of the side of the two Pompeys, among them Labienus, whose funeral was conducted with the last honors paid a general. Cneius Pompey escaped to the seaside with a handful of horsemen, but finding his retreat cut off by Cæsar's lieutenant, hid himself in a cave, where he was taken, and suffered the loss of his life. His head was cut off and borne to the victor. Sextus concealed himself so successfully as to avoid pursuit, and afterwards became a very noted piratical leader.

4. The last victory in Spain terminated the struggles of his avowed enemies, and on his return to Rome, Cæsar occupied himself with vast projects for the benefit of the state. He sent colonies to Carthage and Corinth, which he rebuilt; he undertook to level some mountains in Italy; to drain the Pontine marshes, and to cut through the isthmus of the Peloponnesus.

5. His active mind could not content itself with a state of inactivity. He planned an expedition against the Parthians*

* Inhabitants of Parthia, a celebrated country of Asia, bounded on the west by Media, south by Carmania, north by Hyrcania, and east by Aria, &c.—containing, according to Ptolemy, twenty-five large cities, the most capital of which was called *Hecatompylos*, from its *hundred gates*. The Parthians were, according to some, Scythians by origin. Their peculiar mode of fighting, in which they were very expert, was to discharge their arrows while retiring at full speed. They were very intemperate and luxurious.

to avenge the death of Crassus, who, having penetrated too far into the country, was taken prisoner, and, as a punishment for his avarice, put to death by molten gold poured down his throat.

6. Thence the conqueror intended to pass through Hyrcania* and enter Scythia,† marching along the banks of the Caspian‡ sea, then to open a passage into Gaul through the vast forests of Germany, and in this way return to Rome. The exertion of a few individuals prevented the execution of these vast projects.

7. It began to be rumored that Cæsar was going to assume the title of king, and the people, although knowing that it would invest him with no more power than he already possessed, yet abhorred the name. Cæsar, when told of the various jealousies of many who envied his power, was heard to say that he had rather die at once by treason, than live in the continual fear of it. When told to beware of Brutus, he disclosed his bosom covered with scars, and said, 'Do you think Brutus cares for such poor pillage as this?'

8. Sixty senators, at the head of whom were Brutus and Cassius, whose lives had been spared by Cæsar, conspired against his life. The conspirators put off the execution of their projects until the ides§ of March, the day on which the crown was to be offered to Cæsar. This day the augurs had foretold would be fatal to him, and on the day preceding, hearing his wife Calphurnia lamenting in her sleep, he woke her, and she confessed that she had dreamed he was assassinated in her arms.

9. These omens finally shook the confidence of Cæsar. On that day he had nearly determined not to go to the senate, when a conspirator coming in, represented to him the ridicule which would attach itself to his staying at home until his wife had lucky dreams, and the preparations which had been made for his reception: he then determined to go.

10. On the way, a slave, who had information of the plot, endeavored to get near him, but in vain. One Artemidorus, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, gave him a memorial containing all the particulars, which Cæsar, without reading, handed to his secretary.

11. On entering the senate-house, he encountered Spurina, the augur who had prophesied his peril. 'Well, Spurina,' said he, smiling, 'the ides of March are come.' 'Ay, but not gone,' was the reply of the augur. As soon as he had taken his seat, the conspirators approached under pretence of saluting him. Cimber, assuming a suppliant attitude, took hold of the bottom of his robe to prevent his rising.

12. This was the proposed signal. Casca struck him from behind. Cæsar turned and wounded the assassin in the arm with the steel with which he wrote upon his tablet. The conspirators encircled him. After a second wound from an unknown hand, Cassius stabbed him in the face. Cæsar yet bravely defended himself, rushing forward, and throwing down all who opposed him, until he saw Brutus advance from the crowd of conspirators.

13. Brutus struck him in the thigh. From that time Cæsar thought no more of defence. Fixing his gaze mournfully on the conspirator, he uttered that memorable exclamation, '*Et tu Brute?*' 'And thou, too, Brutus?' Covering his head, and spreading his mantle before him, that he might die with decency, he fell at the foot of Pompey's statue, having received from

* A large country of Asia at the north of Parthia, and at the west of Media.

† A large country situated on the most northern parts of Europe and Asia, and hence called European and Asiatic. Scythia comprehended the modern kingdoms of Tartary, Russia in Asia, Siberia, Muscovy, the Crimea, Poland, part of Hungary, Lithuania, the northern parts of Germany, Sweden, Norway, &c.

‡ Caspium mare, or Hyrcanum, a large sea in the form of a lake, which lies between the Caspian and Hyrcanian mountains at the north of Parthia. The eastern parts are more particularly called the Hyrcanian sea, the western, the Caspian.

§ The Romans divided their months into three parts by *kalends*, *nones*, and *ides*. The first day of every month was called the *kalends*; the fifth day was called the *nones*; and the thirteenth day, the *ides*; except in the months of March, May, July, and October, in which the nones fell upon the seventh day, and the ides on the fifteenth.

the hands of those whom, until a moment before, he imagined faithful friends, twen-

Death of Cæsar.

ty-three wounds. Cæsar died in the fifty-sixth year of his age, fourteen years after he began the conquest of the world.

CHAPTER XLVI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The conspirators having accomplished their object, retired to the capitol, the avenues to which were closely guarded by a body of gladiators, whom Brutus had in pay. Finding the Roman people filled with horror at the murder, Mark Antony and Lepidus conceived the idea of paving the way to power by revenging his death.

2. Cæsar had made the Romans his heirs, bequeathing to them a large portion of his fortune, and their gratitude disposed them to hear with peculiar favor an eulogy upon him. Antony had the bleeding body exposed in the forum, and delivered over it a funeral oration, which stirred up the people to such a pitch of indignation, that had not the conspirators escaped, they would have been sacrificed.

3. Mark Antony now found himself in a fair way to rise to a height equal to that which had been attained by Cæsar, when he found a very powerful rival in Octavius, afterwards called Augustus. The latter was the grand nephew and adopted son of Cæsar, who at this critical moment arrived at Rome.

4. From his relationship to the late ruler, and his titles to regard, he easily won the senate to his interests, and the people were not disposed to view him unfavorably. Antony and Octavius now found it wisest to unite their interests, and, receiving into their confederacy Lepidus, whose power as governor of Gaul, and whose inexhaustible wealth gave him no insignificant authority, they commenced the second triumvirate.

5. The effects of the second triumvirate were incalculably dreadful to the public welfare. The triumviri divided the provinces among themselves, and to make their union indissoluble, each sacrificed his best friends to the vengeance of his associates. Thus Antony doomed his uncle Lucius to death; Lepidus sacrificed his brother Paulus; Octavius betrayed his guardian Toranus, and his friend Cicero. By this proscription perished three hundred senators and three thousand knights.

6. The Roman students at Athens were induced to declare in favor of liberty by Brutus and Cassius, who went thither from Rome. After procuring this declaration they separated; the one going into Macedonia, where he raised a powerful army, the other into Syria, where he became master of twelve legions, and reduced his opponent, Dolabella, to such a state that he killed himself.

7. When the two armies united at Smyrna, the generals, between whom a misunderstanding had existed, now united more warmly; and they who quitted Italy as fugitives, found themselves, not without some exultation, at the head of powerful and efficient forces. Brutus and Cassius now resolved to go against Cleopatra, who was making extensive preparations to assist their enemies.

8. Learning that Augustus and Antony, with forty legions, were on their way to attack the conspirators, the plan of the Egyptian expedition was surrendered. Brutus wished to pass at once into Greece and Macedonia to await the enemy; but Cassius

obtained an agreement to his proposition of reducing the Rhodians and Lycians.*

9. In the speedy operations which followed, the most extraordinary exactions were made, the Rhodians having scarcely any thing but life left, the Lycians not even that. They, shutting themselves up in the city of Xanthus,† defended the place against Brutus with desperation, and neither entreaties nor force could induce a surrender.

10. The town took fire in an attempt to burn the Roman works, and Brutus, to his horror, saw that the inhabitants were intent on destroying themselves in the flames. He rode about the fortifications, stretched out his hands to the Xanthians, implored them to have mercy on themselves and spare their city, but in vain. They rushed into the flames, and the inhabitants, as well as their dwellings, were reduced to heaps of ashes. A reward for every living Lycian, which was proclaimed by Brutus, only procured one hundred and fifty of them.

11. Brutus and Cassius again met at Sardis. They resolved to have a private conference, and shutting themselves up in a house, gave orders to their servants to prevent any visit. Brutus began by accusing Cassius of selling offices for gold which should be parted with to merit only, and with having overtaxed the tributary states.

12. Cassius replied to this charge, which he felt to be groundless, with great bitterness. The dispute waxed warm, words rose to a high pitch, and finally they burst into tears. Their friends, who waited without, hearing their voices raised, feared the most dreadful consequences; but Tavonius, who prided himself upon his ready boldness, broke into the room with a jest, and restored the disputants to good humor.

13. Cassius and Brutus spent the evening in entertaining their friends, and when Brutus returned to his tent, the following circumstance is said to have occurred to him. Brutus, who, by habit and sobriety, had accustomed himself to sleep but little, was studying at midnight, when a noise attracted his eye to the entrance of his tent, which stood open. An enormous figure,

Brutus and Ghost.

with a frightful aspect, was gazing on him with steady severity.

14. 'Who art thou?' said Brutus to the spectre, 'a demon or a man?' 'Thy evil spirit, Brutus,' answered the phantom. 'Well then,' rejoined Brutus, 'we shall meet again.' 'Yes, at Philippi;'* and the phantom vanished. Brutus questioned his attendants, but they had seen nothing, no one. He resumed his studies.

15. On the morrow, struck with the singularity of so horrible an occurrence, he mentioned the apparition to Cassius, who, being an epicurean, explained it by saying that it arose from too great vigilance and anxiety. This solution satisfied the mind of Brutus

CHAPTER XLVII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. When Brutus and Cassius had advanced to Philippi, where the forces of Antony and Augustus were posted to receive them, the world regarded the approaching conflict

* Lycia was a country of Asia Minor, bounded by the Mediterranean on the south, Caria on the west, Pamphylia on the east, and Phrygia on the north. It was originally called *Milyas* and *Tremile*, from the Milyæ or Solymi, a people of Crete who came to settle there.

† A town of Lycia, on a river of the same name, about fifteen miles from the sea-shore.

* A town of Macedonia, called after Philip, king of Macedon, anciently called *Datos*, situated at the east of the Strymon, on a rising ground abounding with springs and water.

with terror and suspense. The republican army consisted of eighty thousand foot and twenty thousand horse; that of the triumviri amounted to one hundred thousand foot and thirteen thousand horse, a great superiority.

2. Brutus declared his intention of committing suicide in case the battle went against him: the generals embraced each other and advanced to the attack. The army of the triumviri was commanded by Antony, Augustus being sick. Brutus penetrated to their camp; but the lines of Cassius were broken, and that unfortunate leader, after vainly attempting to rally his soldiers, finding all hope lost, caused himself to be slain by one of his freedmen.

3. Brutus, although saddened by the news of the death of Cassius, summoned all his energy for the emergency, collected the scattered bands of Cassius, and, to compensate for the plunder of their camp, promised them two thousand denarii each.

4. Brutus, at the expiration of twenty days, at the solicitations of his army, tried his fortune in another battle, and was completely unsuccessful. The son of Cato and the brother of Cassius were killed at his side, and he was forced to flee. The two triumviri were intent upon the capture of Brutus, and a body of Thracian horse, who pursued him, fell in with his friend Lucilius. 'Take me to Mark Antony,' said this generous man, resolved to save his friend, 'I am Brutus.' By the delay thus occasioned, Brutus escaped. Mark Antony, struck with the fidelity of Lucilius, pardoned him, and loaded him with benefits. These battles were fought the year 42 B. C.

5. Brutus killed himself in the following manner: having exclaimed, 'O virtue! I have pursued thee as a substance, and found thee but a shadow!' he expressed a wish to die, and called for a slave to assist him in accomplishing it: but Strato, his tutor, cried, 'Never be it said that the noble Brutus, in his last moments, stood in need of a slave for want of a friend. Averting his head, he held the point of his sword to Brutus, who threw himself upon it and expired.

6. The triumviri still carried on the work of proscription. In fact, but two were possessed of the authority, Lepidus having little influence with the army or the people. The scenes which were presented daily at Rome were of the most shocking description. The most distinguished men were either sacrificed or slew themselves. A senator and son being allowed to cast lots for their lives, refused; the father giving himself up to the executioner, and the son stabbing himself before his face.

7. To another, begging for a grave, Augustus answered that he should find one in the vultures which should devour him. The head of Brutus was brought to Rome, and cast at the feet of Cæsar's statue. His ashes were delivered to his wife Porcia, who resolved, after the example of her husband and father, to terminate her existence. Her friends removing all weapons from her, she swallowed coals of fire and expired. No one concerned in the death of Cæsar came to a natural end.

8. The triumviri, having accomplished their aggrandizement by the ruin of the republic, determined to enjoy the pleasures their success placed before them. Antony went to Athens, where he received the adulation of the Greeks, then to Asia, where the eastern monarchs paid him homage, and finally to Egypt. In the course of the progress, he established Herod on the throne of Judea,* and Sisenes in the kingdom of Cappadocia.

9. Cleopatra, possessed of wit and beauty by nature, her charms heightened by art, determined to lead captive the conqueror. Finding that he was at Tarsus, a city of Cilicia,† she determined to pay a visit to his court. Her galley was covered with beaten gold, and had sails of purple silk, while its silver oars beat the waters of the Cydnus, down which she sailed, to the soft harmony of flutes, and the clank of golden cymbals.

* Judea, a famous country of Syria, bounded by Arabia, Egypt, Phœnicia, the Mediterranean sea, and part of Syria.

† Cilicia, a country of Asia Minor, on the sea-coast, at the north of Cyprus, the south of mount Taurus, and the west of the Euphrates.

10. She herself, attired like Venus, surrounded by boys dressed as Cupids, and young women as nymphs, reclined upon a spangled couch on deck. Beautiful young

Cleopatra sailing down the Cydnus.

girls, in the character of river-nymphs, swam around the galley in its gliding course. Exquisite perfumes were burning on the shores of the stream. Antony followed the syren into Egypt, and indulged in the luxurious and vicious ease to which his heart was prone.

11. During the absence of Antony, Augustus settled the veteran troops in Italy, and for this purpose dispossessed numbers of husbandmen and shepherds. Among many who made applications to retain their patrimony, was the poet Virgil, whose request was granted. The people now felt the greatest distress, for Sextus Pompey, being master of the seas, cut off the usual supplies of corn.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Fulvia, the wife of Antony, enraged at his connection with Cleopatra, was resolved to break it off by means of a rupture between her husband and Augustus; and her brother-in-law, the consul Lucius, enabled her to sow the seeds of dissension. The pretext was, that Antony should have a share in the distribution of lands. Augustus offered to make the veterans umpires. Lucius refused, and having six legions at his disposal, hoped to compel Augustus to yield. He was conquered and pardoned, together with his followers.

2. Antony, hearing that his wife was forced to leave Italy, and that his brother was defeated, determined to fight Augustus with all the power he could muster. He had an interview with Fulvia at Athens, reproached her with the disorders she had occasioned, and expressed the utmost contempt for her person. Leaving her on her death-bed at Sicyon, he went to meet Augustus, with whom he had an interview at Brundusium,* in which a reconciliation was effected.

3. Antony married Octavia, the sister of Augustus: a new division of the empire was made between them, Augustus having the west, Antony the east, and Lepidus the African provinces. Sextus Pompey, one great obstacle in the way of the ambition of Augustus, was finally, after various successes at sea, which gave him the name of the son of Neptune, defeated on his own element, and flying to Antony, was slain by his lieutenant, about 35 years B. C.

4. Augustus, Lepidus having been banished for his imprudent conduct, plainly perceived that the empire of the world would be his, if he could annihilate Antony. Luxury, and love for the Egyptian queen, had subdued the mind and manhood of Mark Antony. In a sea-fight with the Romans, he gave up all hopes of victory because Cleopatra fled from the action in her galley. In the fatal fight of Actium,† B. C. 31, the hopes of Antony were forever gone, and his defeat decisive.

5. Augustus pursued Cleopatra and Antony to Egypt, where the base queen preferred terms of accommodation to the conqueror, offering to surrender her kingdom and abandon her lover; but the victor deter-

* Now *Brundisi*, a city of Calabria, on the Adriatic sea, where the Appian road terminated. It was founded by Diomedes after the Trojan war, or, according to Strabo, by a Cretan colony under Theseus. It was the usual place of embarkation for Greece. It was noted for the birth of Pacuvius, the death of Virgil, and also for its excellent harbor.

† Now *Azio*, a town and promontory of Epirus.

mined that she and her children should walk beside his chariot-wheels in his triumph at Rome. The inhabitants of Alexandria were treated with clemency.

6. Cleopatra shut herself up with a few female attendants in a tomb, into which Antony, who was dying of a wound he had given himself on a false report that Cleopatra was no more, was drawn up through the windows. He expired at the feet of the beautiful queen for whom he had lost the world. She vowed to die also. After having dispatched a letter to Augustus, entreating him to bury her in the same tomb with Antony, she received the asp, by which she killed herself, in a basket of flowers.

7. The messengers of Augustus, dispatched to save her life, found her dead, reclining on a gilded couch, dressed in her

Death of Cleopatra.

regal robes. Iras, a female attendant, had expired at her feet. Charmion, who was dying, was placing the diadem upon the brows of her mistress. 'Alas! was this well done, Charmion?' asked one of the messengers. 'Yes,' replied she, 'it is well done: a death like this becomes a noble queen descended from a glorious ancestry.' As she pronounced these words, she expired on the body of her noble mistress.

CHAPTER XLIX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Augustus, finding himself in undisturbed possession of the empire, resolved to retain by the exercise of clemency what he had acquired by bloodshed. On his return to Rome, his triumphant festivals, his sumptuous entertainments, and his shows, withdrew the public mind from the contemplation of his past cruelty. He had acquired his empire by his troops; he resolved to govern it by the senate. With the advice and instruction of Mæcenas, his minister, he became gentle and affable, and renowned for his patronage of men of talent and learning.

2. Being assured of the attachment of all ranks, he made a show of resigning that authority which he had acquired, and which the senate had confirmed. New honors, however, were lavished upon him; he was then first called Augustus, a name by which he is usually distinguished in history; a laurel was planted at his gate; he was styled the father of his country, and his person was declared sacred.

3. When Augustus entered upon his tenth consulship, the senate placed him above the reach of the laws. They offered to swear to all the laws which he had made and should make in future, and it was determined that no man should suffer capital punishment on the days on which the emperor entered the city. In a time of great famine, the people in a body entreated him to accept the dictatorship; but although he readily became procurator of provisions, he would not take the title of dictator, which had been abolished by a law made during the consulship of Antony.

4. The multiplication of his occupations did not prevent him from faithfully discharging the duties of each. He caused the promulgation of many edicts tending to suppress the corruption of the senate, and the licentiousness of the people. He ordered that no exhibition of gladiators should take place without an order from the senate, and even with this sanction only twice a year. This law had become necessary from the previous custom of sacrificing multitudes of these unhappy men, who were brought upon the stage in whole armies, and paired to fight until one half was annihilated.

5. It was now customary for knights

and ladies of distinction to dance in public at the theatre; but Augustus ordered that not only they, but their children and grandchildren should be restricted from such exercises. Those who refused to marry at a certain age, were fined severely, while parents, who had many children, were rewarded. The senate were ordered to be held always in reverence. New laws were enacted with regard to the manumission of slaves.

6. He subjected the lives of players to a very severe scrutiny, and punished the least licentiousness and indecency of action. He was a patron and friend of athletic sports and exercises; but he thought it unbecoming the modesty of women to witness them, and accordingly prohibited their attendance as spectators.

7. The character of a Roman citizen under the laws and example of Augustus became polished and refined. He was affable and easily accessible. Giving the laws their proper course, he sometimes personally pleaded for those whom he desired to protect. In a certain cause, one of his veteran soldiers desired his protection; but Augustus requested him to apply to an advocate. 'Ah!' replied the old veteran, 'it was not by proxy that I served you in the battle of Actium.' This reply pleased Augustus; he pleaded the cause in person, and gained it.

8. The complete change which had taken place in his disposition was in nothing more conspicuous than in his treatment of Cornelius Cinna, the grandson of Pompey, who had formed a plot against his life, which was discovered just as it was ripe for execution. Resolved to mortify the conspirator by his clemency and generosity, he thus addressed him: 'I have twice given you your life, sir—first as an enemy, now as a conspirator: I now present you with the consulship, and let the future show whether my confidence or your fidelity shall be victorious.'

9. In his private life, Augustus was unhappy. He had married Livia, the wife of Tiberius Nero, by permission of her husband, and was controlled by her imperious temper. Livia, by her first husband, had two children, Tiberius, her favorite and eldest son, and Drusus, born after her marriage with the emperor. Augustus was forced to exile Tiberius to Rhodes, for five years, for although a serviceable general in foreign wars, he was an unquiet spirit in time of peace.

10. The death of Drusus, on his return from his German expedition, filled Augustus with grief; but he was yet more unfortunate in the conduct of Julia, the daughter of his former wife, Scribonia. After divorcing her, he married her to one of his generals, Agrippa, and after his death to Tiberius. By Agrippa she had two children of great promise, Caius and Lucius; but they died young.

11. Augustus, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, began to think of retiring from the fatigues of government, or at least of permitting a portion of them to devolve upon his son-in-law Tiberius. He desired the senate not to take it amiss that he could no longer give them audience as formerly. Thenceforth Tiberius was united with him. Yet he still took a share in public affairs, and finding it impossible to come to the senate by reason of his infirmity, a privy council of one hundred members was assigned him for a year, and their resolves had the force of law. He also delivered his will to the vestal virgins, sensible of his approaching end.

12. He then solemnized the census by which the number of inhabitants was found to be four million one hundred and thirty-seven thousand. During the performance of the ceremonies by an immense congregation of the people, in the Campus Martius, an eagle is said to have flown several times round the head of the emperor, and then perched over the name of Agrippa in a neighboring temple; this, the augurs thought, foretold the death of the emperor.

13. Augustus, soon after this, having accompanied Tiberius in his march to Illyria as far as Beneventum,* began to feel him-

* A town of the Hirpini, twenty-eight miles from Capua, founded by Diomedes. Its original name of Maleventum, changed to the more auspicious one of Beneventum when the Romans settled there.

self seriously ill. On his return, he stopped at Nola, and sent for his friends and acquaintances. Calling for a mirror, he ordered his hair to be arranged with unusual solicitude.

14. He then asked his friends if he had played his part in life properly; and receiving a reply in the affirmative, he cried with his final breath, 'Then give me your applause;' and thus, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, after a reign of forty-four years, he expired in the arms of Livia, bidding her farewell, and entreating her to remember their marriage. His death took place, A. D. 14.

CHAPTER L.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The death of the emperor Augustus was productive of the greatest grief. It was rumored that his wife had some agency in it, in order to procure the speedy succession of her son Tiberius. She kept his death concealed for some time, and finally declared it publicly, as well as the adoption of Tiberius to the empire. The funeral was conducted with great pomp and magnificence. Tiberius addressed the senators in a consolatory oration; but, as if interrupted by overwhelming sorrow, he gave his notes to his son Tiberius, who read the speech to the senate.

2. One of the late emperor's freedmen produced and read his will in the senate house. By this he had left Tiberius and Livia his heirs, and honored the latter with the name of Augusta. Four other writings of the emperor were produced. The first contained directions for his funeral; the second, an account of his various exploits; the third comprised an enumeration of the provinces, forces, and revenues of the empire; and the fourth, a schedule of directions to Tiberius, for governing it. From these it was found that he was of opinion that it was unsafe to trust a man with too much power, lest he should become a tyrant, and that it was also impolitic to attempt enlarging the empire, the size of which made it already difficult to retain.

3. It was decreed that the women of Rome should mourn a year for Augustus. Stately temples were erected, and divine honors allotted to his memory. A certain senator, Numerius Atticus, willing to profit by the adulation of the day, received a very large sum of money for swearing that he saw the late emperor ascend to heaven. This his apotheosis was certified by a credible witness, and there remained no doubt of his being a divinity.

4. Tiberius assumed the reins of government in his fifty-sixth year, A. D. 15. He was naturally of a cruel and base disposition, but, preserving for a short time the profound dissimulation which he had practised under Augustus, the commencement of his reign showed only clemency, generosity and justice. The successes of his nephew Germanicus, among the Germans, first roused his temper, and he consulted Piso on the best means of removing him. Piso was despatched on every occasion to Germanicus, and directed to procure his removal from life by any means that offered. Soon after Germanicus died, it was thought, by poison.

5. Soon, dreading no rival, he threw off the mask. Sejanus, a Roman knight, by cunning arts, overmatched his master in duplicity, and gained his entire confidence. In the twelfth year of his reign, Sejanus persuaded the emperor to follow the natural bent of his indolent and luxurious disposition, and Tiberius, by no means with reluctance, retired to Caprea, a delightful island, three miles from Naples, where, in unhallowed delights, he remained, regardless of the miseries of his subjects.

6. While here, he became more and more cruel, and Sejanus continually struggled to increase his distrusts. In this he so well succeeded, that Nero and Drusus, the children of Germanicus, were declared inimical to the state, and perished by hunger in confinement; Agrippina, their mother, being sent into banishment. Sabinus, Asinius Gallus, and Syriacus, on very slight pretences, were condemned and executed,

and thus Sejanus, removing daily some one who stood between him and the empire, increased in power with the senate, and in confidence with the emperor.

7. Rapidly however as he rose, he fell with still greater celerity. Satirus Secundus had the hardihood to accuse him of treason; Antonia, the mother of Germanicus, seconded the charge, and the senate, exceeding the orders of Tiberius, sent him to execution, and not to prison. As he passed, he was loaded with curses and scoffs, his statues were cast down, and himself strangled by the executioner.

8. The next order of Tiberius was that all the accused should be executed without examination. The city was filled with mourning at the number of deaths. Tiberius, hearing that a certain prisoner had killed himself to avoid the torture, exclaimed, 'Oh! how that man has been able to escape me!'

9. Tiberius, when he found his end approaching, in the twenty-second year of his reign, chose Caligula for his successor, thinking the enormity of Caligula's conduct would blot out the recollection of his own. At a house formerly belonging to Lucullus, on the promontory of Misenum, Tiberius fell into fainting fits, which were believed fatal. Caligula, supposing him dead, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor by the prætorian bands, and went forth amidst the applauses of the multitude.

10. He returned to find Tiberius alive. Caligula was thunderstruck, expecting instant death; but Macro, who was hardened in crime, ordered the dying emperor to be smothered with the pillows of his bed. In this way perished Tiberius, A. D. 39, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, after a reign of twenty-two years. During the eighteenth year of his reign, our Savior was crucified.

CHAPTER LI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. For eight months after the succession of Caligula to the supreme authority, his furious passions, his cruelty, his extravagant wickedness, were concealed; but at the expiration of that time, they burst forth unrestrained. He first assumed the title of Ruler, which was only granted to kings, and he would have seized upon the regal crown and diadem, had he not been persuaded that he was superior to all the monarchs of the world.

2. He claimed divine honors, and assumed the name of those divinities whose nature, he thought, most resembled his. He caused the heads of Jupiter and some other divinities, to be taken off, and his own busts to be erected in their places. He would change his divinity with his dress: sometimes he was a Mars, and sometimes a Venus; at one time, he imitated Jupiter and his thunder; at another, he stepped forth as Diana, the huntress.

3. He even erected a temple to himself, in which his golden statue was dressed in robes similar to those he wore. His priests were numerous, the most opulent men of the city claiming the honor. He was absurd enough to be his own priest, and completed his extravagant folly, by admitting his horse Incitatus, and his wife, to divine honors. With imitations of thunder, he used to dare Jupiter, exclaiming in a speech from Homer, 'Subdue me, or I will conquer you.'

4. In his sauces he frequently had pearls and very precious gems dissolved, and often his guests were presented with dishes filled with gold instead of meat. He used to bathe in perfumes. He built a magnificent stable of marble, with a manger of ivory, for his horse Incitatus, and on the night preceding the day on which the animal was to run, he posted sentinels about his stable, that his slumbers might not be disturbed. Incitatus had a house, furniture, and a kitchen, that he might be able to treat his guests with respect.

5. Often he invited his horse to dine with him, and on these occasions the emperor presented him with gilt oats and wine in a golden cup. He frequently swore by the safety of his horse, and had not his death intervened, he would have appointed him to the consulship He slew numbers

of the senate, and then cited them to appear.

Caligula giving wine to his Horse.

6. Many decrepit old men, and infirm house-keepers, he gave to be devoured by wild beasts, affirming that Rome had no need of such useless citizens. Every tenth day, he sent off those he had condemned, to be given as food to his wild animals, and this, he facetiously termed, clearing his accounts. One of these unfortunate men declaring that he was innocent, the tyrant ordered his tongue to be cut out, and then thrown into the amphitheatre. He took a real pleasure in seeing men expire by slow torture, and valued himself on his unrelenting severity during an execution. It was this man, who, incensed with his subjects, wished that the Roman people had but one neck, which he might sever at a blow.

7. It is not to be supposed that a love of liberty was yet entirely extinct in Rome. Many secret conspiracies were formed against Caligula, which were deferred on account of his proposed expedition to Britain and Gaul, which was undertaken A. D. 41, the third of his reign.

8. The levies which the emperor made in all parts of the empire, and the determination with which he spoke of his proposed exploits, induced the opinion that he would be everywhere successful. But the subjection of Britain ended in his granting protection and an asylum to a fugitive British prince; and with regard to Germany, he merely marched his troops to the sea-shore of Batavia, where he drew up his engines and arranged his men with great solemnity.

9. Going on board his galley, and coasting along, he gave orders for the trumpeters to sound a blast, as if for an engagement, when the soldiers, who had received previous instructions, began at the signal to gather shells, with which they filled their helmets, calling them spoils of the captive ocean, and worthy to adorn the capitol.

10. There was one man, Cassius Chærea, a tribune of the prætorian bands, who resolved to become the instrument of freeing his country from the tyrant. Besides graver reasons for animosity, he hated Caligula for the disrespect with which he treated him. Whenever Chærea demanded the watchword from the emperor, the latter would give him Venus or Adonis, or some other word implying softness and effeminacy, for he accused the tribune of cowardice, merely from the gentleness of his voice.

11. Chærea acquainted some senators, whom he knew the tyrant had wronged, with his design, and while they were considering upon the surest and speediest method of execution, a circumstance which was unlooked for, gave new nerve to the conspiracy.

12. An informer accused Pompedius, a senator of distinction, of having spoken disrespectfully of the emperor. The charge was denied, and Quintilia, an actress, was summoned to bear witness against the defendant. She resolutely denied the fact, and still persisted in the truth, through the horrors of the rack by which her limbs were dislocated.

13. It was resolved to attack Caligula during the celebration of the Palatine games, which were of four days' duration. Chærea anxiously sought an opportunity during those of the three first days, but none offered until the fourth, when Caligula was to pass through a private gallery to his bath.

14. While Chærea was waiting in extreme anxiety, Asprenus, a conspirator, found means to persuade the tyrant to take refreshment in the bath. On his assenting to the proposal, the conspirators

kept off the throng and entered the gallery, surrounding Caligula, whom Chærea was the first to strike to the ground, crying out, 'Think upon this, tyrant!'

15. The other conspirators rushed upon him, and while he continued to resist and exclaim that he was not yet dead, they pierced him with thirty wounds. This was the deserved reward of the crimes of Caius Caligula, who died after a three years' reign, at the age of twenty-nine. Seneca says of him, that nature seemed to have brought him forth to show what was possible to be produced from the greatest vice, supported by the greatest power.

CHAPTER LII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The city was thrown into a state of the greatest disorder by the news of the death of Caligula. The conspirators, who had only thought of killing an emperor, not of providing one, hid themselves away in various quarters. Some soldiers chanced to discover Claudius, Caligula's uncle, hidden in a secret part of the palace. This person, hitherto overlooked for his imbecility, they resolved to create emperor, and the senate sanctioned their choice.

2. Claudius was fifty years old when he began to reign, which he did with all the fair promise of the former bad emperors. He passed an act of oblivion for all former words and deeds, and annulled the cruel edicts of his predecessor. He was solicitous for the welfare not only of Italy, but of the provinces.

3. As Caligula had taken the province of Judæa from Herod Antipater, who had put John the Baptist to death, Claudius restored it to Herod Agrippa, nephew of Antipater, whom he banished. Claudius restored all princes who had been unjustly dispossessed of their dominions; but he enslaved the Lycians and Rhodians, who had crucified some citizens of Rome.

4. The people were clamorous for foreign conquests, and the Britons, seeking the mediation of the Romans to quell their intestine troubles, Claudius determined to extend the Roman victories in that quarter. Bericus, a Briton, who wished to subject his native island to Rome, persuaded the emperor to make a descent upon it. Plautius, the prætor, having marched through Gaul, and persuaded his soldiers, who were at first averse, to embark, gained several victories over the Britons.

5. Claudius, under pretence that some of that nation were yet seditious, and had not surrendered some Roman deserters, went over to Britain, where he remained sixteen days, which were spent rather in receiving homage than in extending his victories. On his return, a splendid triumph was decreed him, triumphal arches were erected, and annual games established to commemorate his successes.

6. Plautius, with the aid of his lieutenant Vespasian, vigorously prosecuted the war. The latter, according to Suetonius, in thirty engagements with the enemy, succeeded in annexing a part of Britain to Rome, as a province, A. D. 51. But under Ostorius, the successor of Plautius, hostilities began anew. The Britons either despised the want of experience in the new commander, or hoped to intimidate and defeat one just come over to the island.

7. The resistance offered by the Iceni* and Brigantes,† was powerful, but ineffectual, while the Silures, or men of South Wales, under the command of their brave king, Caractacus, presented the most formidable opposition which the Romans had yet encountered. This gallant barbarian, with great skill, removed the seat of war to the inaccessible and impregnable fortresses of the country, and for nine years kept the enemy in a state of lively apprehension.

8. When he found himself forced into an engagement by Ostorius, he addressed his people resolutely, and told them that their liberty or bondage depended on the event of the battle. Having animated his

* The Iceni inhabited the counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, &c.

† The Brigantes belonged to the northern part of Britain.

troops, they performed all which undisciplined bravery could accomplish against the matchless conduct of the Roman legions. The Britons were defeated, and the wife and daughter of Caractacus taken, while he himself, having sought refuge with Cartismandua, queen of the Brigantes, was treacherously surrendered to the victors.

9. At Rome, Caractacus, the object of universal curiosity, from the fame of his bravery. and his long resistance of the Roman arms, betrayed no timidity or base subjection. On observing the splendor of the buildings, he cried, 'How is it possible that a nation, possessing so many palaces, could envy Caractacus an humble cottage!'

10. Before the emperor, he was intrepid and upright. 'If I had yielded to you immediately,' said he, 'I should not have gained glory, and your victories would have ceased. If you now spare my life, I shall continue an example of your clemency.' Claudius pardoned him.

11. Although, in the beginning of his reign, he had given hopes of something better, he soon began to appear less interested in the affairs of the public, and gave their management into the hands of his favorites. Having been from infancy in leading-strings, this imbecile emperor was now unable to act without the help of others. Under the guidance of his wife Messalina Valeria, whose name has become a common title for abandoned women, he committed many cruelties, until her debaucheries were discovered, and she and her paramour, Caius Sitius, suffered capital punishment.

12. The second wife of Claudius was Agrippina, the daughter of his brother Germanicus, a woman of a haughty spirit and cruel disposition. She thought of nothing but procuring the succession of Nero, her son by a former marriage. She treated her husband with great haughtiness, and he declared, while flushed with wine, that he was forced to suffer the disorders of his wives, and to be at once their husband and their executioner. Hearing this, Agrippina determined to poison him.

13. Having consulted Locusta, a person infamous for her skill and practice in poisoning, she mixed the fatal substance with a dish of mushrooms, of which Claudius was particularly fond. As soon as he had finished eating, he fell insensible. This caused no consternation, for it was customary with him to eat until he had completely stupified himself, when he was obliged to be borne off to bed. His strong constitution appearing to struggle successfully with the poison, Agrippina procured a physician to thrust a poisoned feather down his throat, under pretence of procuring a vomit, and thus they dispatched him.

CHAPTER LIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Nero, at the age of seventeen, commenced his reign, A. D. 55. In the beginning, he was affable, liberal, and just. When they brought him a warrant for the execution of a criminal, which he was to sign, he exclaimed, 'Would to heaven I had never learned to write!'

2. All hopes, however, founded on his early conduct, proved fallacious. With his increase of years, came a proportionate increase of crime. The murder of his mother Agrippina was the first horrible proof of his inherent cruelty. Failing in procuring her death at sea by drowning, he ordered her to be killed in his palace, and, surveying her dead body, declared that he never knew his mother was so fine a woman.

3. A part of the city was consumed by a fire, of which he, as most historians believe, was the author. Certain it is, that he surveyed the conflagration from a high tower with delight, and he set on foot no active measures to suppress the flames. He accused the Christians of being the incendiaries, and this was a sufficient excuse for putting them to death by the most cruel tortures. He sometimes caused them to be clothed in the skins of wild beasts, and thus hunted to death by dogs.

4. Some were crucified, and some burnt alive. 'When the day was not sufficient

for their tortures,' says Tacitus, 'the flames in which they perished served to illuminate the night.' Among others who died during this persecution, were St. Paul, who was beheaded, and St. Peter, who was crucified with his head downward, this method being chosen by himself, as a death more dishonorable than that suffered by his master.

5. Nero's abominable cruelties raised a conspiracy against him, headed by Piso, an excellent and powerful man; but the plot being prematurely disclosed, only served to involve many noble families in ruin. Among the sufferers whose deaths were remarkable, were Seneca, the philosopher, and Lucan, the poet.

6. Seneca calmly received the tribune sent him by the emperor, to inform him that he was suspected of being an accomplice. 'Tell your master,' said he, 'that my welfare depends upon no man; that not having heretofore accustomed myself to indulge the errors of the emperor, I shall not do so now.' When the tribune described the scene to his master, Nero finding that Seneca displayed no fear of death, said, 'Go to him again, and tell him he must die.'

7. The philosopher was far from being discomposed at the second message. His wife Paulina being resolved to die with him, the veins of both their arms were opened, that they might bleed to death. The blood of Seneca, who was enfeebled by age, and the austere rigors of his life, flowed slowly, and he called for poison to terminate his agonies. This and the warm bath proving ineffectual, he was placed in a dry stove, the vapor of which soon killed him. The arms of Paulina were bandaged by her domestics, and she survived her husband some years, unforgetful of her love.

8. Lucan opened the veins of his arms. Finding them and his legs dead, while the vital parts were yet vigorous, he repeated a beautiful passage from his Pharsalia, describing a person perishing under similar circumstances, and died during the recitation.

9. Petronius, an Epicurean, the author of a book entitled Satyricon, perished in a remarkable manner, A. D. 66. He was committed to prison on a charge of being accessory to the conspiracy of Piso. Unable to endure suspense, he opened his veins. He sometimes closed and then reopened them, not only firmly, but even cheerfully. In neither conversation nor behavior, did he seem a dying man.

10. The execution of Barea Soranus and Pætus Thrasea, Tacitus terms an attack upon virtue herself. Thrasea died, encircled by his friends and intimates, conversing on the nature of the soul. Nermicius Thermos was put to death, as well as Corbulo, a valiant man who had gained for Nero many victories over the Parthians. The death of the empress Poppea followed next.

11. The world seemed now resolved to remove the monster of cruelty, who had so fully disgraced human nature. Sergius Galba, a brave and wise man, then governor of Spain, who had avoided war for sometime, at this crisis accepted the invitation of Vindex, and marched on Rome with a resolute and formidable army.

12. Nero was at supper when the news of Galba's approach was brought him. He was completely beside himself, and in despair cried out that he was undone. Calling on Locusta, who furnished him with poison, he retired to the Servilian gardens, resolving to retreat into Egypt. The revolt becoming general, he was prevented from accomplishing his plans; all doors were shut against him, and, in despair, he called upon his favorite gladiator to dispatch him. On the man's refusal, Nero cried, 'Have I neither friend nor foe?'

13. He rushed to plunge into the Tiber, but his courage failed; and accepting the offer of his country-house from Pharon, one of his freedmen, he mounted a horse, and hiding his face, departed. His brief journey of four miles was crowded with adventures. The lightning flamed in his face; round him he heard the voices of the soldiery imprecating vengeance on his head. He met a man who asked him if he had heard any news of Nero; and was told that horsemen were in pursuit of him.

Leaving his horse at a distance, he entered a thicket, and crept through brambles and

Nero's Flight.

briars to a door at the back part of Pharon's house.

14. The prætorian bands having declared themselves in favor of Galba, the senate confirmed their choice, making him emperor, and condemning Nero to death '*more majorum*,' in the manner of the ancient laws. This punishment, the messenger of the senate explained to Nero, as being the scourging to death of the criminal, whose head was fixed in the pillory, and whose body was stripped naked.

15. Nero, terrified at this, resolved to die, and yet wished some of his attendants to set him the example. Ashamed of this cowardice, he yet was hesitating, when the approaching tramp of the horses of his pursuers determined him. With the assistance of his freedman Epaphroditus, he set a dagger to his throat, and gave himself a mortal wound. The centurion who entered found him yet alive, and pretending he came to assist him, endeavored to stop the bleeding with his cloak. 'You come too late,' said the dying tyrant; 'is this your fidelity?' With eyes glaring and starting from their sockets, he died a frightful spectacle. His reign lasted thirteen years, and he died at the age of thirty-two.

CHAPTER LIV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Galba was seventy-two years old when he was made emperor, A. D. 69. At that time he was absent from Rome, and with his legions in Spain. He was fond of private life, and found his ascension to the throne the beginning of trouble and inquietude. Conscious that his age and want of an heir created disrespect, he determined to appoint a successor.

2. His favorites resolved to choose an heir themselves, and Otho made application for himself; but Galba, determined to consult the public good, made choice of Piso Lucinianus, who was every way worthy of the honor. Otho, who was disappointed severely, corrupted the fidelity of the soldiers, whom he assembled secretly, and harangued on the cruelties and avarice of the emperor.

3. The seditious troops heard him with approbation; elevating Otho on their shoulders, and encircling him with naked weapons, they carried him into the camp, declaring him emperor. Galba, upon their approach, called up his fortitude, bent his head, and desired the murderers to strike it off. They did so, and Otho ordered it to be paraded upon the point of a lance, while the body lay exposed in the streets, until a slave performed the rites of sepulture. Galba died in his seventy-third year, A. D. 69, after a reign of seven months, distinguished by his own virtues, and the vices of his favorites.

4. Otho, elected emperor, began his reign by pardoning Marius Celsus, a man who had been favored by Galba, and he advanced him to high honors, declaring that 'fidelity deserved the highest reward.' The legions in lower Germany, bribed by the gifts, and inflamed by the promises of their general Vitellius, declared him emperor in spite of the senate, alleging an equal right with the Roman cohorts, to choose a ruler.

5. Otho departed from Rome to meet Vitellius in battle. The army of the latter, who had retired into Gaul to lead up the remaining troops, was seventy thousand strong, and commanded by Valens and Cecinna. Such was the impatience of both parties, that in three days, as many battles were fought, and decided in favor of Otho. Valens and Cecinna finally uniting their forces, defeated Otho in a general engage-

ment, shortly after which, he killed himself; his reign having lasted three months and five days.

6. The senate confirmed the choice of Vitellius as emperor, as soon as his party became the strongest, A. D. 69. Vitellius was a glutton, besides being addicted to other vices. He had acquired a habit of throwing off his food, that he might be able to renew his meals when he chose. Thus he soon became burthensome to himself and the empire. The legions of the East resolved to create Vespasian emperor.

7. Vitellius commanded Valens and Cecinna to make all possible speed with their preparations to resist the threatened invasion. Cecinna met Antonius Primus, who led the first hostile army into Italy, near Cremona,* and was induced by a negotiation to declare himself in favor of Vespasian.

8. The army of Cecinna, repenting, imprisoned that general, and attacked the army of Antonius during the night. On the morrow, as the soldiers of Vespasian were saluting the rising sun, as was their custom, the Vitellians thinking that they saw the approach of reinforcements from the East, precipitately fled, with a loss of thirty thousand men.

9. Vitellius offered to resign the empire to Vespasian if he would spare his life and grant him an income sufficient for his support. He came out of his palace in deep mourning, surrounded by his weeping attendants, thinking this spectacle would induce his opponent the more readily to grant his request. In the mean time, Sabinus, who had advised Vitellius to resign, perceiving the situation in which he was placed, and determined to oblige Vespasian by a bold step, seized upon the capitol.

10. The soldiers of Vitellius, however, prevailing by numbers, in their furious attack, soon laid the beautiful building in ashes. Vitellius, feasting in the palace of Tiberius, beheld the conflagration and attack with the highest delight. Sabinus was taken prisoner, and executed by order of the emperor, as were all who had survived the flames, with the exception of young Domitian, the nephew of Sabinus and future emperor, who made his escape in the habit of a priest.

11. On the arrival of Antonius, Vespasian's commander, before the city, the troops of Vitellius determined to defend it to the last extremity, and being driven in, after a bloody battle which lasted a day, they were slaughtered in crowds. Vitellius, taken from his obscure hiding-place, entreated the soldiers to spare his life until the arrival of Vespasian. They refused his request, and, binding his hands together, led him by a halter into the forum, where he was beaten to death. His body was afterwards dragged through the streets and thrown into the Tiber.

CHAPTER LV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Vespasian was declared emperor by the unanimous consent of the army and the senate, A. D. 70. After continuing some months at Alexandria, he gave the command of the army to his son Titus, and went to Rome. At some distance from the city, the senators, and nearly one half of the people of Rome who had gone forth to meet him, rejoiced at gaining an emperor of so much worth and virtue, gave him the most flattering reception. His clemency in pardoning, and his generosity in rewarding, convinced all that their hopes were well founded.

2. The Jews had for a long time resolved to resist the power of the Romans, relying upon divine assistance. Their own historian describes them at this time as having arrived at the highest pitch of crime, while famine, earthquakes, and prodigies, appear to warn of their approaching punishment and destruction. They robbed and murdered each other, and yet during all their guilty acts, boasted of their firm adherence to their ancestral religion.

* A town of Cisalpine Gaul, on the Po, near Mantua. It suffered much during the invasion of Hannibal, at which time it was a Roman colony. It is now famous for the manufacture of violins, which are highly esteemed for their superior tone.

3. At the head of one party was an incendiary named John, who affected sovereign power, and filled the holy city* and its neighboring towns with tumult and pillage. One Simon now raised and headed a new faction; and gathering crowds of murderers and robbers, he succeeded in conquering all Idumea.† At length he was admitted into the city, where John was possessed of the temple, and they were mutually exasperated.

4. Titus commenced the siege. Jerusalem was fortified by three walls, except where it was defended by deep valleys. Titus battered down the outward wall, throughout his operations showing the greatest clemency to the infatuated Jews, and promising them protection. He next made a breach in the second wall, and though driven back, he speedily regained his ground, and made preparations for levelling the third.

5. Titus first sent their countryman Josephus to the citizens, exhorting them to yield, and exposing the hopelessness of their resistance; but he was only loaded with abuse. The siege now took a still more vigorous and determined turn. Batteries being destroyed immediately upon their erection, Titus encircled the whole city with a deep trench, thus cutting off all supplies from abroad. The desperate Jews, unsubdued by famine and pestilence, determined to hold out.

6. Titus, cutting down all the woods in the vicinity, now erected more batteries, and beating down the wall, in five days made a forcible entry into the citadel. Even at this point, the Jews entertained the most absurd and futile expectations, and false prophets declared that they should receive the interposition of God. Around the inner wall of the temple, the conflict raged with dreadful fury.

7. Titus wished to preserve this beautiful building; but the conflagration of some adjacent houses, which were fired by a soldier, spread to the temple, and in a very short time this magnificent edifice was in ruins. This struck terror and despair to the hearts of the Jews, who now saw that Heaven had deserted them. The dying raised their eyes to bewail the loss of the cherished structure which they valued far beyond life itself.

8. Titus soon made himself master of Zion, the highest and strongest part of the city, which was very resolutely defended. John and Simon had concealed themselves in vaults, but were discovered and dragged forth. The former was doomed to imprisonment for life, and the latter was reserved to grace the victor's triumph.

9. The siege had lasted six months, and the city was now completely destroyed. According to Josephus, a million of men perished in the siege, and nearly a hundred thousand were made captives. Titus returned to Rome in triumph, with his father. Among the magnificent spoils, were vast quantities of gold, taken from the temple; the book of the holy law was the most remarkable trophy. This was the first time that father and son triumphed in Rome.

10. An arch was erected, inscribed with all the Jewish victories of Titus, which remains, mostly entire, to the present day. Vespasian also erected a temple to Peace, which formed the deposit of the principal parts of the Jewish spoils. The temple of Janus, which had been open for five or six years, was now closed by order of the emperor, he having tranquillized all parts of the empire.

11. At the termination of ten years, during which Vespasian had reigned to the satisfaction of all, he found himself seized with a sudden indisposition, which he felt would have a fatal termination. Saying that an emperor should die standing, he lifted himself upon his feet, and expired clasping the hands of his attendants.

CHAPTER LVI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Titus, the valiant conqueror of Jerusalem, was made emperor, A. D. 79. During

* Jerusalem, called Hierosolyma, a city of Palestine, and the capital of Judea. Pompey took it before Titus besieged it.

† Or Idume, a country of Syria, famous for palm-trees. Its capital was Gaza.

the reign of his father, Titus had been accused, and not without reason, of prodigality, cruelty and lust; but on his accession to the throne, he determined to distinguish himself by justice, moderation, humanity, and a total abandonment of his former vices.

2. He had long been warmly attached to Berenice, sister of Agrippa, a woman of exquisite beauty and great allurement; but being convinced that a connection with her would displease the Roman people, he sent her away, though she tried every art to induce him to change his resolution. Titus punished informers and false witnesses, who had their origin in the corruption of former reigns, with great severity.

3. His clemency was great. Two noblemen being convicted of forming a conspiracy against him, were pardoned, and the next day, sitting beside them in the theatre, he put into their hands the swords with which the gladiators fought, and asked them if they were of the right length. Even Christian writers have commemorated his courtesy and readiness to do good. One night, recollecting that he had done nothing that day to benefit mankind, he exclaimed, 'Oh, my friends! I have lost a day!'

4. During the reign of Titus occurred the first memorable eruption of mount Vesuvius,* in which Pliny, the naturalist, having ventured too near, to examine the phenomena, lost his life. The volcano threw its ashes upon places more than a hundred miles distant, and the lava overwhelmed many towns. There also happened at Rome a fire, which lasted three days and three nights, and a plague, during which ten thousand men were interred in a single day. The emperor endeavored to mitigate the sufferings of the people, and declared he would take the loss occasioned by the fire upon himself.

Eruption of Vesuvius.

5. But the Romans, while disastrous at home, were successful abroad. Agricola, who had been sent into Britain, during the latter part of Vespasian's reign, succeeded in subduing the refractory natives, and civilizing those who had formerly been subjugated by the Roman arms. The inhabitants of North Wales submitted first.

6. He then descended upon Mona,* on the isle of Anglesea, which surrendered without contest. Having thus mastered the country, he labored to restore discipline to his army, and introduce Roman manners and politeness among the nations he had conquered. He exhorted them to erect stately buildings and temples, and to instruct the sons of their nobles in the liberal arts and sciences. He had them taught the Latin language, and they gradually assumed the dress and luxurious living of their conquerors.

7. Titus was saluted emperor for the fifteenth time, on account of the British successes. He did not survive this honor a great while, dying in the forty-first year of his age, having reigned rather more than two years. Some suspicion attached to Domitian, the brother of the emperor, of having hastened the death of Titus.

* A mountain of Campania, now called *mount Soma*, about six miles east of Naples. The writers of the Augustan age spoke of Vesuvius as a place covered with vineyards and fruit-trees, of which the middle was barren. The eruption, during the reign of Titus, was accompanied by an earthquake which buried Pompeii and Herculaneum. The perpendicular height of Vesuvius is three thousand seven hundred and eighty feet.

* An island between Britain and Hibernia, anciently inhabited by Druids.

CHAPTER LVII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Domitian's reign began, A. D. 81, with all the characteristics of the former reign,—clemency, liberality, and justice. But hardly had the people ceased to congratulate themselves on having so worthy a successor to Titus, when the new emperor began to display the low propensities and the natural degradation and vice of his mind. Instead of imitating his father and brother in the cultivation of literature, he accustomed himself to meaner pursuits, such as archery and gaming.

2. Of the first he was particularly fond, and so skilful a marksman, that he used frequently to make a slave, standing at a distance, hold his hand out as a mark, and would aim his arrows so exactly as to stick them all between his fingers. Every five years he had contests in music, horsemanship, and wrestling; but all philosophers and mathematicians were exiled.

3. He entertained the people with more expensive shows than any former emperor or king. He himself distributed the rewards, sitting as president, decorated with a crown and rich purple robes, and having the college of Flavian priests and those of Jupiter around him. Although in public thus ostentatious, the meanness of his private life was contemptible. He used to pass his time in catching flies, and impaling them on a bodkin, which gave rise to the answer of a servant to some one inquiring if Domitian were alone, that not even a fly was with him.

4. He treated Agricola with great injustice, being jealous of his military reputation. He made a pretended expedition against the Catti, a people of Germany, and without coming in sight of the enemy, he resolved, in his return to Rome, to have a triumph. He bought a parcel of slaves, whom he dressed in German habits, and entered the city amidst the concealed contempt and outward rejoicing of the people.

5. Agricola subdued Caledonia,* overcame Galgacus, at the head of thirty thousand men, and, sending out a fleet to explore the coasts, first discovered that Britain was an island. He also discovered and conquered the Orkney islands, and made a Roman province of the whole. Domitian, thinking the activity of Agricola a practical satire on his own indolence, gave him external marks of approbation, but recalled him under pretence of making him gover nor of Syria.

* Now Scotland.

6. Agricola surrendered his province to Salustius Lucullus, but he found the government of Syria disposed of otherwise. Returning by night to Rome, he was very coolly received by the emperor, and dying soon after, in retirement, Domitian was believed to have caused his death. The tyrant soon felt the want of so experienced a general, to repel the invasions of the barbarians on the confines of the empire.

7. The European and Asiatic Sarmatians* made a terrible irruption, annihilating a legion and Roman general. Decebalus, king of the Dacians,† defeated the Romans in several battles, and finally led off his men in consideration of a sum of money. Domitian, however, had a triumph on the occasion, and took the title of Germanicus, for subduing a people with whom he had never fought.

8. He was daily more despised; but as ridicule increased, his pride and demand of adulation grew in proportion. He would permit the use of no baser metals than gold

* Sarmatia was an interesting country at the north of Europe and Asia, divided into European and Asiatic Sarmatia. The European was bounded by the ocean on the north, Germany and the Vistula on the west, the Tanais on the east, and the Jazygæ on the south. The Asiatic was bounded by Tanais, Hyrcania and the Euxine seas. The former contained the modern kingdoms of Russia, Poland, Lithuania and Little Tartary; the latter, Great Tartary, Circassia, and the neighboring country. The Sarmatians painted their bodies, to appear terrible in war. They were noted for licentiousness, and passed among the Greeks and Latins by the name of Barbarians. Their only habitation was their *chariots*, whence they have been called *Hamax obii*. They subsisted by plunder, and fed upon milk mixed with the blood of horses.

† The Dacians were a very warlike nation. Dacia now forms the modern countries of Walachia, Transylvania and Moldavia.

and silver in the composition of his statues; he claimed divine honors, and caused himself to be addressed with the titles used to the divinity. Many illustrious senators were put to death upon the slightest pretences.

9. Lucius Antonius, the governor of Upper Germany, knowing how odious Domitian had become, resolved to make a bold step, and assumed the imperial insignia. He had under him a very powerful army, but that being divided by an overflow of the Rhine, Normianus, the emperor's general, attacked him and put him to flight.

10. Domitian's cruelties were increased in his attempts to discover who were of the adverse party. He cut off the hands of some, and thrust fire into others, who fell under his suspicions. He was guilty of hypocrisy also, as he never pronounced a sentence without a preamble full of benevolence and mercy. The night preceding the crucifixion of his steward, he treated him with the greatest apparent kindness, and sent him delicacies from his own table.

11. Aretinus Clemens was carried in a litter with the emperor the day on which he resolved upon his death. He frequently threatened to exterminate the whole body of the senate and nobility, who stood in the greatest fear of him. He once invited them to a public entertainment, where they were ushered into a spacious hall, of which the black hangings were gloomily illuminated by a few dim lamps. Placed around were coffins, each bearing the name of a senator. A body of men, with blackened bodies and drawn swords, entered and danced around. While they were expecting death to terminate their agony, the doors opened, and a slave of Domitian came and gave them leave from the emperor to withdraw.

12. Domitia, the wife of the tyrant, a woman whom he had taken away from her husband Ælius Lama, was one of those whom he at the same time caressed and distrusted. Happening to get a sight of the tablets on which Domitian carefully inscribed the names of his intended victims, she started on observing her own name with those of Norbanus and Petronius, prefects of the prætorian bands, who, with Stephanus, comptroller of the household, entered into the conspiracy on being informed of the circumstances.

13. Stephanus, having obtained permission to speak to the emperor in private, entered with his hand in a scarf, to conceal his dagger, as none were permitted to approach Domitian armed. He handed the tyrant a paper containing the particulars of a pretended conspiracy, and while he was eagerly reading it, gave him a severe but not mortal wound. Domitian threw down the assassin and shouted for help. Parthenius, his freedman, a gladiator, and two subaltern officers, entered and dispatched the emperor, with seven wounds. Thus perished Domitian, A. D. 96, in the forty-eighth year of his age, and the fifteenth of his reign.

14. Apollonius Tyaneus, an impostor probably, was lecturing in Asia Minor on the day of Domitian's death. Stopping suddenly, he cried out, 'Courage, Stephanus, strike the tyrant.' He then added, 'Rejoice, my friends, this day a tyrant dies. Nay, the very moment in which I keep silence, he suffers for his crimes.'

CHAPTER LVII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The soldiers on whom Domitian had lavished money, were the only class who regretted him; the senate loaded his memory with reproaches, and on the day of his death, chose as his successor, Cocceius Nerva, a Spaniard of illustrious family, who was sixty-five years old, and famous for his wisdom, virtue, and moderation, and regard for the laws.

2. The people, who suffered so much from bad men, regarded the illustrious and mild Nerva with delight. He swore that no senator should be put to death during his reign, and kept his oath so strictly that when two senators conspired against him, he carried them to the theatre, and placing a dagger in the hand of each, desired them

to strike, declaring that he would not ward off the blow.

3. He passed many excellent acts, one of which provided for the execution of all slaves who had, during the past reign, informed against their masters. He suffered no statues to be erected to him, and converted those of Domitian into money. In spite of his generosity and benevolence, he had enemies among those who ever struggle against virtue. Virginius Rusus, who opposed him, was pardoned and appointed to the consulship. He contented himself with banishing Calphurnius Crassus and others, found guilty of conspiracy.

4. The greatest insurrection was that of the prætorian bands, who swore to revenge the assassination of the emperor Domitian. In vain did Nerva use all his power to stop the revolt; in vain did he present his bosom to the troops, and tell them to strike there alone. They not only seized Petronius and Parthenius, and shamefully slew them, but they compelled the emperor to approve of their insurrection.

5. This constraint had the happy effect of causing the choice of Trajan for a successor. About three months after, the effects of passion caused by Regulus, a senator, threw Nerva into a fever, of which he died, after a reign of a little more than one year, having passed the age of seventy-one. He was the first foreign emperor who reigned in Rome, and was justly celebrated for his generosity and mildness.

6. Trajan, the successor of Nerva, descended from an Italian family, was born at Seville, in Spain. On his return to Rome from Germany, which he governed, he ascended the throne, A. D. 98. Plutarch, the philosopher, had the honor of being his master, and from Plutarch he heard the first lecture addressed him on his arrival at Rome.

7. This excellent emperor was forgiving to his enemies, was faithful in discharging the duties of business, liberal in his rewards of merit, and economical in his expenses. When, according to custom, he presented the sword to the prefect of the prætorian bands, he used this remarkable and forcible expression: 'Take this sword and use it, if I have merit, for me: if otherwise, against me.' He added, that he who made the laws should be the first to observe them.

8. During the reign of Domitian, Decebalus, king of the Dacians, had led them on, invading and desolating the Roman territories. Trajan's first expedition with a powerful army was against these Dacians; but, under the conduct of their king, they long baffled his most vigorous efforts. Decebalus was finally defeated in a general battle, and came into the Roman camp to offer peace on the most advantageous terms. As the Romans wanted linen, their emperor tore up his robes to bind their wounds.

9. On his return to Rome, after the customary triumphs, Trajan was surprised to hear of the renewal of hostilities by the Dacians. Decebalus was a second time declared the enemy of Rome, and Trajan invaded his dominions with an army equal to the former one; but the Dacian king had grown cautious, and avoided an engagement. He took prisoner Longinus, and sent to Trajan, threatening to kill his captive, unless peace was granted. Trajan replied that war and peace did not depend upon a single individual. Longinus destroyed himself, and his fate gave a new vigor to the operations of the emperor.

10. He constructed a bridge of more than twenty-two arches, an hundred and fifty feet high, and seventy broad, whose ruins yet remain, over the deep, wide, and rapid Danube.* He then subdued, in spite of determined resistance, the whole of Dacia, and annexed it, as a province, to the Roman empire. The head of Decebalus,

*The greatest river in Europe; according to Herodotus, it rises near the town of Pyrene, in the country of the Celtæ, and after flowing through the greater part of Europe, falls into the Euxine sea. The Greeks called it *Ister*. The Romans distinguished it by the name of *Danube* from the commencement till the middle of its course; thence to its mouths, they gave it the Greek name. Its fall into the Euxine is by seven mouths, or six, according to others. Herodotus says five, but modern travellers discover but two. The Danube was worshipped as a deity by the Scythians. It was supposed to be the northern boundary of the Roman empire in Europe, and castles were erected on its banks as defences against the barbarians.

who killed himself, was sent to Rome, to certify his fate. Ambassadors came, even from the interior parts of India, to congratulate Trajan upon his success, and to acquire his friendship. His triumph, with the rejoicings of the Romans, lasted one hundred and twenty days.

11. The peace and prosperity of Trajan's sway procured for him the love, admiration, and almost adoration of his subjects. The city, by his orders, was embellished with public buildings, and freed from men notorious for their vices, while persons of merit were admitted to the friendship of the emperor. His persecution of the Christians, A. D. 107, was a blot upon Trajan's character. It ceased upon the assurance of Pliny, the consul of Bithynia, that they were innocent and inoffensive in their way of living.

12. During the absence of Trajan on an expedition against the Armenians,* the Jews raised a general insurrection in all parts of the empire, and massacred all the Greeks and Romans they could seize upon, with savage fury. This rebellion began in Africa, and thence spread to Egypt and Cyprus. These places were almost depopulated. The Jews eat the flesh of their enemies, wore their skins, sawed them asunder, forced them to kill each other, and enacted the most studied tortures in putting them to death.

13. However, the governors of the respective provinces, by the most vigorous measures, put an end to these outrages. The Jews were put to death like wild beasts. It was enacted that no Jew should set foot in Cyprus under pain of death, since in Cyprus they practised their abominable cruelties.

14. Trajan, meanwhile, was pushing his successes in the east to an extent never before reached by the Roman arms. After resolving to return to Rome, he found himself too weak to proceed, and being carried by water to the city of Selerius, there died of the apoplexy, A. D. 117, in the sixty-third year of his age, after a reign of more than nineteen years.

* Armenia, a large country of Asia, divided into Upper and Lower Armenia. Upper Armenia, called also Major, has Media on the east, Iberia on the north, and Mesopotamia on the south. Lower Armenia, or Minor, is bounded by Cappadocia, Armenia Major, Syria, Cilicia, and the Euphrates. Armenia Major is now called Turcomania, and Minor, Aladulia.

CHAPTER LIX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Adrian, the nephew of Trajan, was elected to succeed him by all orders of the state, although he was then absent at Antioch,* as commander-in-chief of the forces in the East. Satisfied with preserving the ancient boundaries of the empire, he resolved that his reign should be remarkable for its peace.

2. He had no sooner ascended the throne than incursions were made by the barbarians of the north, who found safe means of annoyance by issuing from their forests, and retreating into the depths of these sanctuaries, on the approach of an army. Adrian had thought of giving up the remote provinces of the empire, which he thought hardly tenable; but he was overruled by his friends. Though yielding to their remonstrances, he broke down the bridge upon the Danube, as offering a path for the incursion of enemies, as well as for the march of an army to pursue them.

3. Adrian resolved to visit the whole empire, and taking with him a splendid court, he first entered Gaul, passing thence into Germany, Holland, and Britain. In the last place, he built a wall of wood and earth, from the river Eden, in Cumberland, to the Tyne in Northumberland, to protect the inhabitants against incursions of the Picts,† and other barbarous nations.

4. On his return through Gaul, he visited

* A city of Syria, once the third in the world for beauty, greatness and population. It was built by Antiochus and Seleucus Nicanor, partly on a hill and partly in a plain. There were several cities of the name.

† The Picts were originally Scythians, called also *Agathyrsæ*, from painting their bodies to render them more terrible. A colony of these, according to Servius, emigrated to the northern parts of Britain.

Spain, and thence went to Rome, where he prepared for his visit to the East, which quelled the insurrection of the Parthians. In Asia Minor he visited Athens, where he was initiated in the Eleusinian mysteries, considered the most sacred of the pagan rites, and assumed the office of archon, or chief magistrate of the city.

5. Gronianus, the proconsul of Asia, here representing to him the innocent lives of the Christians, he put an end to the severity of their persecutions, and was so favorably disposed to them as to think of receiving Christ among the gods. After remaining for a winter at Athens, he visited Sicily, and noticed its various curiosities.

6. From Rome, to which he returned to prepare ships, he went to Africa, where he spent some time in the reformation of abuses, ordering the government, and building splendid edifices. He ordered Carthage to be rebuilt, and called it, after himself, Adrianople. Again returning to Rome, he thence passed through Greece into Asia Minor, then into Syria, and finally to Palestine, Arabia, and Egypt, where he ordered the renewal and decoration of Pompey's tomb, which had grown defaced, and was almost buried with sand.

7. The Jews, assisting in the re-building of their temple at Jerusalem, which was ordered by Adrian, the work was soon accomplished, and the Jewish people entertained expectations of being restored to their old kingdom. Finding, however, that liberties were granted to pagan worshippers in their city, they arose and put all the Romans and Christians of Judea to the sword.

8. Adrian, who was at Athens when this dangerous rising took place, sent Julius Severus at the head of a powerful force against the insurgents. Severus was finally successful in many bloody engagements, and the war, which lasted two years, was closed with the destruction of above a thousand fine towns, and the loss in battle of six hundred thousand men. All the Jews were banished from Judea, and a law was made forbidding their coming in sight of their native land.

9. The Jewish insurrection was followed by a dangerous incursion of the northern barbarians, who entered Media and devastated the track through which they passed through Armenia as far as Cappadocia. Adrian, wishing to preserve peace, procured it by bribing them with money, with which they returned to their wilds to meditate fresh incursions and new extortions.

10. Adrian returned to Rome after having spent thirteen years in travelling through and reforming the abuses of his empire. Finding his duties increasing, and his health declining, he determined on the adoption of a successor. He selected Titus Antoninus, afterwards surnamed the Pious; but being obliged to adopt two others, Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus were chosen, all of whom succeeded in the empire. Adrian died in the sixty-second year of his age, having reigned prosperously twenty-two years.

CHAPTER LX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Titus Antoninus was a native of the city of Nismes, in Gaul. When elected emperor, he was about fifty years of age, and had filled several of the most important offices of state with integrity and application. He was surnamed the Pious for his tenderness to Adrian in his dying moments, and for his attachment to his religion.

2. He bestowed great rewards upon eminent men of learning. Having adopted Marcus Aurelius, who had married his daughter, as a son, he sent for Apollonius, the stoic philosopher, to instruct him. When Apollonius had arrived at Rome, his attendance was required; but he replied haughtily that it was the scholar's duty to wait upon his master, and not the part of the instructer to wait upon the pupil. Antoninus sent Marcus Aurelius to him, but observed that it was strange, having come all the way from Greece to Rome, he should object to walking from one part of the city to another.

3. In the midst of his plans for the bene-

fit of mankind, this excellent emperor was seized with a fever at Lorium, and, sensible of his approaching end, desired the attendance of his friends and principal officers. In their presence he confirmed his choice of Marcus Aurelius, making no mention of Lucius Verus, whom Adrian had joined with him in the succession. Then directing the golden statue of Fortune, which was placed in the chambers of the emperors, to be removed from his apartment to that of Marcus Aurelius, he died in the seventy-fifth year of his age, after a reign of more than twenty-two years.

4. Marcus Aurelius voluntarily took Lucius Verus as an associate in discharging the duties of government, A. D. 161. The father of Aurelius was Annius Verus, of an illustrious family, whose antiquity rested on their claim of a descent from Numa. Lucius Verus was the son of Commodus, who had been appointed to succeed by Adrian, but died before he could obtain the honor.

5. Aurelius possessed virtues and accomplishments; his partner was only noted for debauchery and fiery passions. In the commencement of their reign, the invasion of the Catti was repelled, and the revolt of the Britons put down; but the Parthians made so dreadful an irruption that Aurelius and Verus went in person to oppose them.

6. At Antioch, Verus gave up his duties to his lieutenant, and plunged into the excesses for which he was naturally disposed. In the course of four years, the Parthians were subdued, but the Roman army returned, having lost half their numbers by pestilence and famine. During this time, Aurelius was active in producing the happiness of his subjects at home. Mortified and shocked at hearing the enormities of his colleague, he yet hoped to reclaim him, and for that purpose sent him his daughter Lucilia, a lady of wonderful beauty, whom Verus married at Antioch.

7. Aurelius, finding this marriage unable to reform his colleague, hoped that his presence would awe Verus on his return to Rome. His expectations were fruitless. Taking advantage of the calamities of the Romans, while a plague was depopulating the western world, the barbarians extended their ravages into Italy. In vain did the priests, to avert the vengeance of heaven, offer up all the sacrifices, and celebrate all the rites which had been ever known at Rome. These enthusiasts finally ascribing the public calamities to the impiety of the Christians, all of that faith were persecuted throughout the empire, and Justin, St. Polycarp, bishop of Smyrna, and many others, suffered the most cruel martyrdom.

8. Aurelius, taking his colleague, marched against the Marcomanni* and Quadi.† Near Aquileia,‡ they came up with the Marcomanni, put them to flight, pursued them over the Alps, defeated them in several battles, and returned to Italy, without considerable loss on the part of the Romans, A. D. 169. Verus, on a journey from Aquileia to Rome, was seized with apoplexy, of which he died at the age of thirty-nine.

9. Public tranquillity and prosperity having been restored by the strenuous exertions of the emperor, news was brought that the Scythians and northern barbarians were in arms invading the empire. Aurelius determined to expose his venerable person at the head of his devoted troops. He occupied himself for three days in giving advice to his people, and directions for their conduct. He then departed, accompanied by the wishes, prayers and lamentations of his people. He was seized with the plague at Vienna, where he died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign of nineteen years.

CHAPTER LXI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Commodus, who was elected from the merits of his father, was a man of

* A people of Germany on the banks of the Rhine and the Danube.

† An ancient German nation near the Marcomanni. Their country was a part of the empire now called Moravia.

‡ A town founded by a Roman colony, called, from its magnificence and grandeur, *Roma Secunda;* situated at the north of the Adriatic sea, on the confines of Italy.

unbounded licentiousness and cruelty. He frequented taverns, and plunged into the most guilty excesses. Sometimes, as a petty chapman, he went to market with his wares; sometimes he appeared as a horse courser; and for amusement drove his

Commodus driving his Chariot.

own chariot, dressed as a slave. He fought with gladiators, and prided himself on his skill in killing wild beasts in the amphitheatre.

2. Any man could purchase of Commodus leave to kill his enemy. He commanded one to be killed for reading the life of Caligula, another to be thrown into a fiery furnace for overheating his bath by accident. When very good-natured, he turned barber, and would slice off noses for a joke; yet so suspicious was he, that he was obliged to burn his own beard, fearing to let others shave him.

3. At the feast of Janus, he resolved to fence naked, as a gladiator. Lætus, his general, Electus, his chamberlain, and Marcia, of whom he was very fond, remonstrated with him on this conduct, and he was so incensed as to resolve upon their destruction. Marcia, getting hold by chance of the paper on which their names were inscribed by him as devoted victims, showed it to Lætus and Electus, and they resolved upon his death. Commodus was strangled in the thirty-first year of his age, after a wicked reign of about twelve years, A. D. 192.

4. Helvetius Pertinax, a virtuous and brave man, had been fixed upon to succeed Commodus, previous to his assassination. On being carried into the camp, he was proclaimed emperor, and Commodus termed an enemy to the gods, a parricide, and a blot upon nature. The citizens saluted Pertinax, and swore to obey him.

5. Just and gentle, however, as was this good monarch's reign, he found enemies and opposition. The prætorian bands who had experienced the prodigal indulgence and profusion of Commodus, found fault with the economy and discipline which Pertinax introduced among them. They paraded turbulently through the streets, and entering the palace unopposed, a foreign soldier killed the monarch at a blow. His character was blameless, and his reign lasted only three months.

6. The soldiers now gave out that they would sell the imperial dignity to the highest bidder. Of two claimants, Sulpician and Didius, the latter produced enormous sums of money, and obtained the office. Being conducted to the senate house, he thus laconically addressed the few senators who were present: 'Fathers, you want an emperor; I am the fittest person you can choose.' He was recognised as such in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

7. As Didius was avaricious after his exaltation, the soldiers, who had chosen him for his wealth, hated him; and the people, who were never in his favor, now heaped him with execrations whenever he ventured from his palace gates. Severus, an African by birth, being proclaimed emperor by his army, and having rejected the offer of half the authority, which was made by Didius, obtained the sanction of the senate. They acknowledged him, and sent messengers to dispatch the incumbent in office.

8. Severus conquered his competitors, Niger and Albanus, and secured his power by loading his soldiers with rewards and benefits. He was noted for his acquirements, his wit, and his prudence, but equally notorious for his perfidy and cruelty. The Parthians were, at that time, making an invasion of the empire, and Severus opposed them. He forced a king to submission, he laid in ruins several cities of Arabia, he plundered the famous city of

Ctesiphon,* and returned to Rome through Palestine and Egypt in triumph.

9. Appointing his two sons, Geta and Caracalla, successors, he took them with him in his expedition to Britain, where the Romans were threatened with destruction. His army suffered greatly in this expedition. They were forced to drain marshes, to erect bridges, and to hew paths through unshorn forests. In consequence of sickness and fatigue, fifty thousand men perished. Severus himself, after forcing the enemy to purchase peace with the cession of half their country, died in Britain at the age of sixty-five. His vigorous but cruel reign lasted eighteen years.

10. Caracalla and Geta, acknowledged emperors, A. D. 211, early showed a natural hatred. Caracalla led some ruffians into Geta's apartment, where they stabbed him in his mother's arms. Caracalla repeated in his reign all the enormities of the former immoral and cruel emperors, till at length his general Macrinus procured Martial, a brave and powerful centurion, to despatch him. This the centurion did with a stab, and Caracalla expired immediately.

11. Macrinus, who was chosen by the soldiery, and recognised by the senate, made his son Diadumenus his partner in office. Diadumenus also was acknowledged. Macrinus was fifty-three years old when he ascended the throne. By mere rotation in office, he had become first prefect of the prætorian bands. He concealed successfully the treason by which he had attained his dignity.

12. Mosa, for the sake of her grandson Heliogabalus, opposed Macrinus. Defeated by a revolt of some of his own legions, he fled with his son into Chalcedon,† where both of them were put to death after a reign of one year and two months.

* In Assyria, on the banks of the Tigris, now Elmoddin. From the mildness of the climate, it was the winter residence of the kings of Parthia.

† Or Chalcedonia, now Kadi-Keni, an ancient city of Bithynia, opposite Byzantium, built by a colony from Megaza, under the conduct of Argias, B. C. 685. It was first called Procerastis, and afterwards Colpusa. Its situation was ill chosen.

CHAPTER LXII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The citizens and senate confirming the appointment of the soldiery, Heliogabalus ascended the throne at the age of fourteen, A. D. 218. His brief reign was crowded with his acts of lust, effeminacy, cruelty, and extravagance. He married six times in the course of four years, and divorced all his wives.

2. He built a senate house for women, at which his mother presided. They met several times, and their debates always turned upon the fashions of the day, and the different formalities and ceremonies to be made use of in society. Heliogabalus used to say that dishes which were cheaply obtained were not fit to eat. He endeavored, after the manner of the haruspices, to foretell events by inspecting the entrails of young men whom he ordered to be sacrificed, choosing for that purpose the most beautiful in Italy.

3. The soldiers finally rose and put him to death. His body, after having been exposed to every indignity, was sunk in the Tiber by heavy weights, that no one might find it and give it the rites of burial. Heliogabalus died in the eighteenth year of his age, after a reign of four years.

4. Alexander, the cousin of Heliogabalus, succeeded him without opposition. The senate, with the adulation by which they sought to propitiate all newly-chosen emperors, wished to heap titles upon him; but he declined them all. He was a virtuous and accomplished man. At the age of sixteen, he was an exact mathematician and geometrician, and a fine musician; he also understood painting and sculpture and in poetry excelled almost all of his time.

5. During his reign, the Upper Germans and barbarians of the north poured upon the Romans in masses; they crossed the Rhine and Danube, and threatened the subversion of Italy. Alexander repelled them; but in the course of his campaign he lost his life in a mutiny of the turbulent troops. He died in the thirty-ninth year

of his age, having reigned prosperously thirteen years.

6. Maximin, the chief promoter of the sedition, was chosen emperor, A. D. 235. He for some time followed the profession of his father, who was a Thracian herdsman; but, enlisting in the Roman army, was soon noted for tremendous strength and undaunted courage. This giant was eight feet and a half high. He wore the bracelet of his wife as a thumb-ring, and was able to draw with the greatest facility a carriage which two oxen could not start.

7. He was able to knock out a horse's teeth with a blow of his fist, and break his thigh-bone with a single kick. He daily consumed forty pounds of flesh, and drank six gallons of wine. He neither feared nor regarded any human being. Cruel and unrelenting, he delighted to sport with the terrors of man. He gained several battles over the Germans, and carried fire and sword into their country, to the extent of four hundred miles.

8. Finally, his own soldiers, worn out with his excessive cruelties, and the calamities he created, resolved to put him to death. Fear of his great strength deterred them for some time; but at length, winning over his sentinel, they set upon him while sleeping in his tent, and slew him. Thus died this remarkable man, after reigning three years.

9. The body of the cruel giant was thrown to dogs and birds of prey, and Pupienus and Balbinus reigned for some time tranquilly, A. D. 238. The prætorian soldiers, however, hated them, and, on the event of a quarrel between the emperors, while their guards were intent upon the Capitoline games, the soldiers seized them, dragged them towards the camp, and having slain them, left their bodies in the street.

10. As the mutinous troops hurried along through the streets, they accidentally met Gordian, whose grandfather was slain in Africa, and at once made him emperor, A. D. 238. Although but sixteen years old when he began his reign, Gordian made up for his want of experience by virtue. He endeavored to unite the citizens and soldiers by friendship.

11. The prætorian bands were the first to murmur, and Philip, their prefect, an Arabian, artfully increased their dissatisfaction. He was made equal in command to the emperor, and finally invested with the sole power, of which the first use he made was to put his long-purposed cruelty into effect by slaying Gordian, in the twenty-second year of his age, after reigning virtuously six years.

CHAPTER LXIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Philip was made emperor, A. D. 243. He made his boy, six years old, his partner in the government of the empire. Making peace with the Persians, he led his army to Rome, in order to strengthen himself in that quarter. The army at length revolted in favor of Decius. Philip was killed by his general and one of his sentinels, who, at a blow, clave his head asunder, separating the upper from the under jaw. He died in the forty-fifth year of his age, having reigned five years.

2. Decius, who was declared his successor, was a wise and active man, whose exertions were directed towards preventing the total decay of the Roman empire. The senate voted him not inferior to Trajan. But the disputes between the Christians and the pagans within, and the irruptions of barbarous nations from without the Roman empire, doomed its fall, and foretold its inevitable fate. Decius fell by an ambuscade of the enemy, in the fiftieth year of his age, after a reign of two years and six months.

3. Gallus, the betrayer of the Roman army, was declared emperor by that part of it which escaped after the defeat, A. D. 251. He was forty-five years old when he commenced to reign, and was the descendant of a noble family. He bought a dis-

graceful peace by stipulating to pay the Goths* a large annual tribute.

4. Gallus permitted the pagans to persecute the Christians throughout the empire. A pestilence which raged for seven years followed these calamities, and a civil war between Gallus and his general Æmilianus, who, having gained a great victory over the Goths, was proclaimed emperor by his troops.

5. Gallus roused awhile from his pleasures, and prepared to oppose Æmilianus; out the latter slew him and his son in a battle fought in Mœsia.† He died in the forty-seventh year of his age, after a disturbed reign of but little more than two years, justly detested for his vices.

6. The senate refusing to recognise Æmilianus as emperor, the army stationed near the Alps chose their general, Valerian, to succeed Gallus. Valerian determined to make a reformation in the state, although it seemed next to an impossibility to achieve it. The Persians invaded Syria, and their king Sapor took Valerian prisoner as he was making preparations to oppose them.

7. For seven years did the unfortunate Valerian endure the utmost cruelty from Sapor, who invariably used him as a footstool in mounting his horse, and to his harsh conduct added the most bitter taunts. Sapor finally commanded his eyes to be torn out, and had his prisoner flayed alive.

8. Gallienus, his son, promising to avenge the injuries of Valerian, was chosen emperor, A. D. 259, at the age of forty-five. Having conquered Ingenus, a commander in Pannonia,‡ he gave himself up to sloth and luxury. At this time, when the licentiousness of Gallienus roused the general hatred, there were no less than thirty as pirants to the imperial purple.

9. Gallienus being fairly forced into the field by necessity, led an army against Milan,* which had fallen into the hands of one of the Thirty Tyrants, as they were called. There he was murdered by his troops; Martian, one of his generals, heading the conspiracy against him.

10. Flavius Claudius, nominated successor to the late monarch, was cheerfully accepted by all classes, A. D. 268. Flavius was a courageous man and a skilful leader, and was of the greatest service in repelling the furious irruptions of the Goths. In an expedition against this people, he died of a pestilential fever, much regretted by his subjects.

11. Aurelian being acknowledged emperor, ascended the throne at the age of fifty-five, A. D. 270. His parents were poor and obscure people of Dacia, and he had risen by regular gradation in the course of his long service in the army. He is said to have killed eight hundred of the enemy with his own hand, and, possessing all the courage, only wanted the clemency of Julius Cæsar, to equal him in every way.

12. Among others, he took captive the celebrated Zenobia, queen of Palmyra,† whose country he subdued, whose city he laid in ruins, and whose person was reserved to grace his triumph. Her secretary Longinus, the celebrated critic, suffered death by Aurelian's order. Zenobia was afterwards allowed territory and income almost sufficient to maintain her former splendor. The severities of Aurelian caused his assassination in the sixtieth year of his age, after a reign of nearly five years.

* Gothi, a noted nation of Germany, called also Gothones, Gutones, Gythones, and Guttones. They were a race of warriors.

† Mœsia—divided into Upper and Lower Mœsia. Lower Mœsia lay upon the borders of the Euxine, and contained that tract of country named Pontus from its vicinity to the sea, and which now forms part of Bulgaria. Upper Mœsia lies beyond the other, in the inland country now called Servia.

‡ Pannonia was divided by the ancients into Upper and Lower Pannonia, and bounded on the east by Upper Mœsia, south by Dalmatia, west by Noricum, and north by the Danube. Its inhabitants were originally Celtæ. Sirmium was the ancient capital of Pannonia, which contains the modern countries of Croatia, Carniola, Sclavonia, Bosnia, Windisch, March, with part of Servia, and the kingdoms of Hungary and Austria.

* Formerly Mediolanum, capital of Tusubria, at the mouth of the Po.

† The capital of Palmyrene, a country on the eastern boundaries of Syria, now called Theudemor or Tadmor. Its ruins are yet magnificent, and are daily examined by curious and learned travellers.

CHAPTER LXIV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Tacitus, a man of great merit, and possessed of no ambition, was chosen to succeed Aurelian upon the throne, A. D. 275. He was then seventy-five years old. During six months he governed with prudence, and gave hopes of a continued reign of great prosperity; but he was seized with a fever, of which he died in his expedition to repel an invasion of the Scythians and Persians.

2. Probus, a man of noble parentage, a native of Sirmium, in Pannonia, bred a soldier, ascended the throne at the age of forty-four, upon the death of Tacitus. In the army he was ever foremost in deeds of daring, nor did he lay aside his activity and courage when he assumed the robes of emperor. Calamities pressed heavy on the empire, and irruptions multiplied during his active reign. He was finally slain by his mutinous troops on their way to Greece, after he had ruled rather more than six years.

3. Carus, prætorian prefect to Probus, was chosen emperor by the army, A. D. 282. He associated with him his sons, Carenus, a vicious, and Numerian, a virtuous person, to strengthen his authority. Carus, shortly after his election, was killed by lightning in his tent. Numerian wept so bitterly at losing his father, that he was forced to be carried in a close litter from which all light was shut out.

4. Aper, his father-in-law, conceiving a plan by which to seize upon the empire, hired a ruffian to stab Numerian in his litter. The crime was concealed until the offensive effluvia of the dead body discovered it. In the midst of the tumult excited by this circumstance, Diocletian offered himself, was chosen emperor, and with his own hand put Aper to death. Diocletian was a great commander, but of mean parentage, and born at Dioclea,* whence he received his name. He began his reign at the age of forty, A. D. 284.

* A town of Dalmatia.

5. Diocletian and Maximian, his partner in power, after many brilliant victories, and in the midst of triumph, resigned their authority in the same day, having reigned twenty years. Constantius Chlorus, so called from the paleness of his complexion, a brave, virtuous, and moderate man, and Galerius, a brave but brutal and vicious person, were chosen successors to Diocletian and Maximian, who had indeed selected them. To avoid disputes, they divided the empire between them, Constantius taking the western parts. Galerius was carried off by a singular disorder, having lingered a year in torments. Constantius died in Britain, appointing his son Constantine successor.

6. Constantine, afterwards surnamed the Great, among other competitors in the opening of his reign, was opposed by Maxentius, a firm pagan, at that time master of Rome. We are told that Constantine was converted to Christianity as he marched against the usurper, by a wonderful appearance in the heavens. Praying for divine assistance to guide him through his difficulties, as the sun was declining, a vast cross of bright light appeared in the sky, with this inscription, 'In this conquer.'

7. Constantine caused a royal standard to be made in the form of that which he had seen in the heavens; and having attached his Christian soldiers to his interest, he advanced upon Rome with ninety thousand foot, and eight thousand horse, while Maxentius came out to meet him with one hundred and seventy thousand foot, and eighteen thousand horse. Constantine was victorious, and Maxentius killed by the breaking down of the bridge by which he attempted to cross the Tiber. Constantine bestowed offices of trust upon Christians, and did what he could for the revival of letters and piety. His reign was disturbed by Maximin, the enemy of Constantine and the Christians, but being defeated by Licinius, he died of madness, which the Christians ascribed to a judgment of Heaven.

8. A rupture took place between Constantine and Licinius. After several successes on the part of Constantine, and a

truce, which was broken, Licinius was finally defeated, and surrendered on his life being assured by the oath of the conqueror. This oath Constantine broke; fearing or discovering fresh conspiracies in which Licinius was engaged, he put him to death.

9. Constantine assembled an ecclesiastical council, in which the tenets of Arius were condemned almost unanimously, and the heresiarch with his associates, were banished to a remote part of the empire. The most plausible account of the execution of Crispus and Fausta, the son and wife of Constantine, by his order, is this: Fausta failing in her attempts to obtain from Crispus, the son of Constantine by a former wife, a return of the passion she felt for him, accused him to the emperor. The father having put his son to death, on discovering that he had been deceived by Fausta, caused that infamous woman to be executed.

10. Constantine did the empire an irreparable injury in transferring the capital from Rome to Byzantium,* which he beautified by the erection of many magnificent buildings. He dedicated it solemnly to the God of martyrs, and removed thither two years afterwards with his court. The city was called after him Constantinople.

11. Constantine repressed the incursions of the Goths, who pressed forward when they found that the Romans had withdrawn their garrisons from the castles on the Danube, with a loss to the enemy of one hundred thousand men, that number of the Goths perishing by cold and hunger.

12. Constantine committed the error of dividing the empire among his sons, whereby an inferior force being left at each station, the Goths, though often defeated, finally conquered by superior numbers. Constantine, at the age of sixty, finding his health declining, went to Nicomedia,† where, having received the sacrament and rites of baptism, he died, A. D. 337, after an active reign of thirty-one years.

* Situate on the Thracian Bosphorus, founded by a colony from Megara, under the command of Byzas, 658. According to Paterculus, it was founded by the Milesians; Justin says, by the Lacedæmonians; and Ammianus, by the Athenians.

† Now Is-niknied, a town of Bithynia, founded by Nicomedes I. It was the capital of Bithynia, and for beauty and greatness was compared to Rome, Antioch, or Alexandria.

CHAPTER LXIV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. After Constantine, the Roman emperors dwelling in the east lived with all the enervating luxury of oriental manners, and had neither moral nor physical courage to oppose to the leaders of the Goths, who brought into the empire men of robust constitution and undaunted bravery.

2. Constantius, who reigned thirty years, was timid, weak and irresolute, governed by his wives and eunuchs. Julian, surnamed the apostate, from his relapse into belief in paganism, was a valiant and virtuous prince. He dispossessed the barbarians of fifty towns upon the Rhine, which they had taken, and made himself feared by them; but he died after a reign of two years.

3. Jovian and Valentinian were brave and valiant. The latter occupied himself with raising fortifications on the banks of the Rhine, and making levies; but an unforeseen occurrence assisted the general destruction. A tract of land lying between the Palus Mæotis,* the mountains of Caucasus and the Caspian sea, was inhabited by a warlike and fierce nation, called the Huns or Alani. Thinking it an impossibility to cross over the Palus Mæotis, they knew nothing of the Romans.

4. Some imagine that the slime deposited by the river Tanais, gradually formed an incrustation on the Cimmerian Bosphorus, over which the Huns passed. Others tell a story of two young men in pursuit of a heifer, swimming over an arm of the sea, and, on their return, relating the wonders of the lands they had discovered. An immense body of the Huns then passed these straits, and compelled the Goths whom the met, to fly. The Goths entreated the protection of Valens, who assigned them portions of land in Thrace, but gave

* Now the sea of Azoph.

them no necessary provisions. In consequence of this neglect, they rose and destroyed Valens and most of his army, in a dreadful battle fought near Adrianople.*

5. They gradually mastered the eastern parts of the empire, and Italy became the frontiers of its own possessions. Theodosius, a brave and wise prince, for a time averted the ruin which threatened the empire. On his death, however, the thunderbolt fell. An immense number of Goths under the command of Alaric, their king, had been called in to assist the Romans. Alaric, courageous and enterprising himself, perceiving the weakness of the state, declared against his employers, and ended by pouring an overwhelming force over the Alps into the delightful valleys of Italy.

6. Most of the antique spirit which would have defied the invaders in death, was extinct; the emperor Honorius, within the walls of Ravenna, thought only of keeping his empty title and his robes of state, while the people saw the ravages of the invaders with horror. The city of Rome, crowded with inhabitants, and the seat of famine and pestilence, was in a dreadful condition. The senate sent ambassadors to Alaric, desiring peace or leave to fight him in the open field. To this the Gothic monarch sternly returned answer that 'thick grass was more easily cut than thin;' meaning that men cooped within the walls of a city were more readily destroyed than when extended in array of battle.

7. He agreed to give them peace on their surrendering all their wealth and all their slaves. Being asked what he meant to leave them, he replied, 'Their lives.' A treasure, procured by taxation and by stripping the heathen temples, procured a brief peace.

8. Alaric soon returned, and took and plundered Rome. The capital of the Cæsars, the queen of cities, fell beneath a dreadful doom. Monuments of taste and learning were destroyed; but the Christian churches were spared, and the pagans found safety in applying to the Christians for protection. The devastation lasted three days. Genseric, king of the Vandals,† completed the destruction of what Alaric left unruined—for fourteen days, his pitiless soldiers ravaged the city. Privacy was disregarded, publicity contemned, while neither age, sex, or religion were protected against the attacks of licentiousness and avarice.

9. The western emperors for some time feebly held the show of power, while barbarians from the remotest parts of Europe overran fair Italy. Honorius lived till he saw himself stripped of his dominions, while the inhabitants of Rome attempted to take the power into their own hands. The very name of emperor of the west became extinct upon the resignation of Augustulus, and Odoacer, king of the Heruli, assumed the title of king of all Italy.

10. Thus perished the Roman empire. Victorious by its arms, it was no less so by its wisdom; raised to eminence by temperance, it fell by luxury; established by patriotism, it sank to ruin when it became so extensive that a Roman citizen was but an empty name. Its final dissolution happened 522 years after the battle of Pharsalia, and 476 after the birth of Christ. It is vain to seek in modern Italy for the existence of the bravery which inspired Horatius, or the stern patriotism which filled the soul of Brutus. In the better days of Rome, it was joy enough to die for her, glory enough to be a Roman citizen. The Roman empire perished through luxury, and the same luxury characterizes Rome at present. Her very language is the degenerate scion of a noble stock;—soft and effeminate, its accents are more fitted to the strains of an *improvisatore* than the inspired denunciations of a patriot. While her sons devote themselves to the arts of peace, while, without a thought of freedom, the marble lives, the canvass glows, and the lyre breathes beneath their hands, there sometimes wakes a reminiscence of former grandeur, vain as it is transient. The Roman girl yet sings of faded fame, amidst the ruins of the Coliseum:

> Roma, Roma, Roma!
> Non è più come era prima.
>
> Rome, Rome, thou art no more
> What thou hast been!

* A town of Thrace on the Hebrus.
† A people of Germany.

The ruins of the immense amphitheatres and temples, the splendid baths and aqueducts, the villas, the obelisks and the triumphal arches which yet remain, although decayed and shattered, excite the deepest attention, and awaken thoughts which lead to good results. The history of Rome is an instructive lesson, and deserves to be deliberately read.

CHAPTER LXV.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The city of Rome was built upon seven hills, the names of which were Palatinus, Capitolinus, Quirinalis, Viminalis, Esquilinus, Cœlius, and Aventinus.* The Roman kings resided on mount Palatine, and on the Capitoline hill were the capitol and the Tarpeian rock. Heaps of rubbish, collected during more than two thousand years, fill up the spaces between the hills, and render them hardly distinguishable. The summit of the Capitoline hill, in particular, is only about one hundred and twenty feet above the level of the Tiber.

2. The Pantheon, or temple of all the gods, built by Agrippa in the time of Augustus, bids fair, from its solid construction, to endure many centuries longer. Ruins of the theatres of Pompey and Marcellus yet remain. The Coliseum, or Flavian amphitheatre, for shows of gladiators and wild beasts, was built to contain one hundred thousand spectators, and the ruins are still the most remarkable in Rome. The columns of Trajan and Antoninus, the baths of Titus and Caracalla, although in ruins, are objects worthy of admiration and curiosity.

3. The immense tomb of Adrian is now the castle of St. Angelo, and has undergone many alterations to adapt it to the papal taste. The triumphal arches of Severus, Titus and Constantine, are yet ornaments to the ancient forum. In this large open place, which was oblong in shape, the assemblies of the people were held, justice was administered, and public business transacted. It was encompassed with arched porticoes, enclosing spacious halls, where courts of justice sat and decided upon the causes of individuals.

4. Besides the division of the people into tribes and curiæ, they were separated into patricians and plebeians, and afterwards, equites or knights. A more minute description than has already been given of these classes, will be here, perhaps with greater propriety, presented.

5. The patricians received their name from the *patres* or fathers, as the senators were called; they were also termed *patrones*, patrons. The plebeians were so named from *plebs*, the common people; they were also termed *clientes* or clients, because they were to look to patricians as their counsellors or advocates, and were bound to assist these latter with money, if necessary, and to pay them the utmost respect.

6. The knights (*equites*) at first were not a distinct order, but were chosen by the censor promiscuously, from the patricians and plebeians, and furnished with a horse and a gold ring at the public expense. They were required to have reached their eighteenth year, and to possess a fortune of three thousand two hundred and twenty-nine pounds.

7. Other distinctions were made among the people. Those whose ancestors had been consuls, prætors, censors, or curule ædiles, were called *nobiles*, or nobles. They could make images of themselves, which were transmitted with care to their descendants, and carried out at funerals. Those who owed no honor to hereditary descent, but who were the first of their family to fill any of the above offices, were called *homines novi*—new men, or upstarts.

8. The *ingenui* were those whose parents had always been free; slaves who had been made free were called *liberti* and *libertini*. The slaves of the Romans were men whose misfortune in being made captives in war, lost them their liberty forever, or who were born in a state of servitude, or reduced to slavery as a punishment for some crime. Slaves were publicly sold in the market-place, and the purchaser had absolute

*Three more, the Janiculum, Vaticanus, and Hortulorum, were afterwards added.

power over them, they being considered as things or effects, not in the light of human beings.

9. The history of the senate, the original and final number of its members, &c. has been already given; a few more remarks will be made upon their dress and privileges. The senators were distinguished by an oblong stripe of purple sewed on the front of the senatorial gown; and by black buskins reaching to the middle of the leg, with the letter C inscribed in silver on the top of the foot.

10. The chief privilege of the senators was their right to a seat in the *orchestra* at public spectacles; this was next the stage at a theatre, and next the arena or open space in the centre of an amphitheatre.

11. The badges of the Roman kings were a robe adorned with stripes or fringes of purple, an ivory sceptre, a curule chair, (which was a seat of state formed of ivory) and the attendance of the lictors. The consul and prætor had the same dress as the kings, with the exception of the crown. The dress of the ædiles was similar.

CHAPTER LXVI.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. Roman citizens were not only the original residents in the city, or Roman territory, but the freedom of the city was granted to several foreign towns, whose inhabitants enjoyed all the public and private rights of the Romans. Of the private rights, the first was the right of liberty which protected the citizen from tyranny, and the unjust severity of magistrates; it was illegal to pass or execute any sentence upon a Roman citizen without the concurrence of the whole Roman people; and the single exclamation, 'I am a Roman citizen!' stayed the uplifted hand of the agent of tyranny.

2. The second private right of a citizen was that of family. Each clan *(gens)* had certain rights which were transmitted by inheritance. No one could pass from a patrician to a plebeian family, or the contrary, without a regular form of adoption made before an assembly of the people.

3. The right of marriage compelled a citizen to marry one of his clan, and prohibited him from union with a slave, a barbarian or a foreigner, except with the express permission of the people. The right of a father gave him absolute power over the life and death of his children. The sons, however, were generally manumitted, which was done in the following manner: The father brought his son before the prætor and sold him three times to a friend, who sold him again to his father. The latter then claimed the rights of citizenship for his son, who, on receiving these, was his own master.

4. By the right of property, the right of transferring property, of going on foot and driving animals, or a wain, through the land of another, and of conveying water through, was guaranteed. The right of inheritance implies that none but Roman citizens could make or witness a will, or inherit any property by one.

5. The right of wardship, or tutelage, gave a father permission to choose a guardian for his wife or children, without whose concurrence they were not allowed to act. By their public rights, Roman citizens were allowed to have their names inserted in the books of the censor, to serve in the army, to pay taxes only in proportion to their estates, and to vote in the assemblies of the people.

6. Roman citizens were eligible to offices, civil, military, or religious, and were allowed to worship their family gods. Foreigners were allowed to reside in the city; but they could be expelled thence by a magistrate, without the right of appeal. They enjoyed none of the rights of citizens. They could neither dress like Romans, nor acquire property, nor make a will. These were original distinctions, which were afterwards abolished.

7. The assembly of the whole Roman people, convened to give their vote upon any question, was called *comitia*. There were three kinds,—the *curiata*, the *centuriata*, and the *tributa*. Some magistrate

summoned the comitia, for the election of magistrates, the passing of laws, or the declaration of war or peace; or, in certain cases, to try persons guilty of grave offences.

8. The comitia curiata were an assembly of resident Roman citizens, who were divided into thirty curiæ. Matters of importance being laid before them, were decided by a majority of these curiæ. The comitia centuriata were composed of the people, who gave their votes by centuries, into which they were divided by the census. At the comitia tributa, the people voted by tribes, according to their wards.

9. Julius Cæsar first abridged the liberty of the comitia, after they had been assembled for upwards of seven hundred years. Augustus also, like Cæsar, shared with the people the right of creating magistrates. Tiberius, among other acts of injustice, deprived them altogether of the right of election.

CHAPTER LXVII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The principal laws of the Romans were those of the Twelve Tables; but the increase of riches gave rise to a number of crimes, and consequently to a multitude of laws, which bore the names of the persons who proposed them, and the crimes to which they referred. Judicial proceedings were either *civil*, that is, such as concerned private causes, or differences between individuals, and *criminal*, such as concerned actions directly or indirectly prejudicial to the commonwealth.

2. Civil cases were tried before the prætor in the forum, criminal actions were brought before the comitia centuriata and tributa. The Roman punishments were fine, imprisonment and fetters; scourging with rods, or the infliction on the criminal of the same injury which he had committed on the person of another; public penance, banishment, slavery and death.

3. Criminals sentenced to death, were executed either by being beheaded, strangled in prison, or thrown from the Tarpeian rock. Crucifixion was considered as the most disgraceful of capital punishments, and therefore slaves and the meanest persons suffered death by the cross. Parricides, after being scourged, were sewed up in a leathern sack with a cock, an ape, a serpent, and a dog, and cast into the sea or a deep stream.

4. Among the priests, the augurs, fifteen in number, interpreted dreams, oracles, and prodigies. They pretended to obtain a knowledge of the future from the most trivial as well as grave occurrences—from appearances of the heavens, such as thunder and lightning, and other natural phenomena,—from the song or flight of birds,—from the eating of chickens,—from quadrupeds, from hearing strange voices, stumbling, sneezing, spilling the salt, or seeing apparitions, &c.

5. The *haruspices* derived omens of futurity from the appearance of the entrails of the beasts sacrificed at the altar, from the flame and smoke of the burnt offerings; from other circumstances, the approach of the victim without resistance, his fall by a single blow, his bleeding freely, &c. These were favorable omens, the reverse unfavorable.

6. The worship of the gods among the Romans consisted principally of prayers, vows, and sacrifices. The Romans usually prayed with their heads uncovered, and their faces turned to the east. A priest pronounced the words of the supplication, which the person who prayed repeated, frequently touching the altar and prostrating himself.

7. The vows of gifts, temples, games, sacrifices, &c. were made with much solemnity. They were written on tablets of wax and paper, and fastened with wax to the knees of the images of the gods, these parts being thought to be the seat of mercy. In the early ages of the republic, criminals guilty of certain crimes were sacrificed to Pluto and the infernal gods. Even after its prohibition by the senate, 100 years B. C., numbers were frequently sacrificed, and many cast alive into the sea, as offerings to Neptune.

8. Altars and temples, among the Ro-

mans, afforded refuge to slaves flying from cruel masters, to insolvent debtors escaping from their creditors, and to criminals. Although it was unlawful to drag them forth, their pursuers forced them out by encircling their lurking-place with fire, or by shutting up and unroofing the temple, leaving them to expire.

9. The Romans had stated festivals. The feasts in honor of Janus were celebrated in January. On the 13th of February were the Lupercalia, feasts in honor of Pan. In this month, also, the *Feralia*, in honor of ghosts, took place. People carried little offerings to the graves of their departed friends, and relatives and intimates ended any differences by a feast of peace.

10. In March, happened the Matronalia, the feast kept by the Roman wives, on the occasion of which, they had presents from their husbands; and the Quinquatia, the feast of Minerva, at which time the young prayed for wisdom, and boys brought presents to their masters. The feast of Ceres occurred on the 19th of April. The Saturnalia, or feasts of Saturn, took place the 17th of December, lasted seven days, and were the most noted of all the ancient feasts. Slaves enjoyed liberty on these occasions, and all was merriment. The Saturnalia abounded in all the extravagant gayeties of a modern carnival.

11. The *dies fasti*, on which courts were held, the *dies nefasti*, when they were closed; the *nundinæ* on market-days, the *dies comitiales*, on which public assemblies were held; the *præliares* and *non-præliares*, days of hostility and peacefulness, were each observed differently by the Romans. The year was so filled with sacrifices and holidays, that the emperor Claudius, in the year 46, abridged their number.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The Roman games were always consecrated to some god. They were stated, or vowed by generals in time of war, or celebrated on extraordinary occasions. The exhibitions in the *circus maximus* consisted of chariot and horse races, contests of agility and strength, skirmishes on horseback, combats of wild beasts, representations of battles on horse and on foot, and at sea.

2. The charioteers were divided into four parties, and distinguished by the colors of their dress. The spectators sided with a particular color, as fancy or whim directed them. Thirty thousand men lost their lives at Constantinople during the time of Justinian, in a quarrel between the partisans of the colors.

3. The exercises of agility and strength were running, leaping, boxing, wrestling, and throwing the quoit. Boxers fought with gloves loaded with lead or iron, to increase the weight of a stroke. Wild beasts were either matched against each other, or arrayed against men who fought as a punishment, like the primitive Christians, or voluntarily, to exhibit their bravery, or for hire.

4. The sea-fights were at first mock battles, instituted for the purpose of acquiring naval discipline; afterwards, malefactors or captives composed the crews, and fought to death unless spared by the clemency of the emperor. The combats of gladiators, men who fought for public entertainment, appear to have originated in the custom of slaying captives on the tombs of those who fell in battle, to appease their manes.

5. Gladiators were at first malefactors, captives and slaves, trained for the combat; but in the degraded days of Rome, freeborn citizens, and even senators, voluntarily engaged in this dangerous and disgraceful pursuit. The Roman tragedy and comedy was wholly taken from the Greeks.

6. All persons above seventeen years of age were summoned to meet at the capitol by the military tribunes, who were twenty-four in number, and chosen by the consuls as soon as they entered upon office. War was declared by a priest, who, having asked redress from the nation by whom the Romans thought themselves injured, on their refusal to grant it, flung a bloody spear into

their territory, and formally pronounced war against them.

7. The principal military officers were the commander-in-chief, the *legati* or generals, the tribunes and centurions. The Roman legion, a body of six thousand men, was composed of four kinds of foot soldiers. The *hastati*, young men in the flower of life, formed the first line, the *principes*, middle-aged men, the second line, the *triarii*, old soldiers of acknowledged bravery, the third. The *velites*, young and inexperienced troops, fought in detached parties before the ranks.

8. Their arms were the galea or helmet of brass or iron; the lorica or coat of mail made of leather, covered with scales of iron, silver or gold; greaves worn upon the right leg made of the same material; the sword; the pilum or dart, and the shield which was composed of wood covered with bull's hide, and protected by a boss of iron. The principal ensign was a golden eagle.

9. The triumph decreed to a general, was the greatest military reward. The punishments of the common soldiers were beating with rods, slavery, and the bastinado with clubs: soldiers were also stoned to death, or killed by other means. The minor punishments were, giving the delinquent wheat instead of barley, depriving him of his belt, shaming him in public, &c. Among the military machines were the battering ram, a long beam armed with iron, in the form of a ram's head, driven forward against walls; the balista, an engine to cast stones, and the catapulta to send darts of an enormous size.

10. The Roman vessels were divided into ships of war and ships of burthen. The ships of war were rowed by oars, and the vessels were named from the number of banks; as, *triremis*, a galley with three tiers of oars, *quadriremis*, one with four, &c. Ships of war had usually three, four, and five banks of oars. None had more than one mast.

11. The ships of burthen had a basket hung from the mast as a sign, and an ornament in the shape of a fish's tail erected at the stern, supported the flag-staff. The sharp beaks of the war-galleys were covered with brass, and had three points with which they damaged or sunk the hostile ships. The war-galleys were decked, while the ships of burthen were open. When about to engage, towers were erected upon deck, whence stones and other missiles were discharged in the action by means of machines.

CHAPTER LXIX.

ROME—CONTINUED.

1. The Roman dress consisted of a toga and tunic. The toga was loose and flowing, without sleeves; it was arranged in a graceful manner, and covered the whole person. The toga was worn by Roman citizens alone: slaves and exiles were prohibited the use of it. The *toga virilis* was assumed by young men at the age of seventeen. The tunic was the under-dress of the Romans; it was a white woollen vest reaching to the knees before, and the middle of the leg behind, with and without sleeves, and belted round the waist.

2. The females wore the *stola*, a vest reaching to the ankles, and when they went abroad, they cast over it a *palla*, a long open robe which covered them; their heads were decorated with ribbons, and the Roman ladies wore ear-rings, necklaces and armlets. The ancients had their heads covered only on particular occasions, when they wore either a woollen cap or a round covering shaped like a helmet.

3. The feet were protected by the *calceus*, a covering like our shoes, laced round the foot, and the sandal, which was fastened by straps or strings.

4. The principal meal of the Romans was supper, which they took at three o'clock in the afternoon. The ancient Romans fed and drank frugally and sparingly; but when wealth enabled them to do it, they gratified every appetite. They then reclined at their meals, and had their wines mixed with aromatics and spices. The Romans bathed daily, and used a great deal of athletic exercise.

5. Marriage was a ceremony much re-

spected by the Romans. Its validity rested on the legal age of the parties, and the consent of their parents. Boys were marriageable at fourteen, girls at twelve. Numerous were the ceremonies attending a Roman marriage. The auspices were consulted, and offerings made to the gods.

6. The Roman funerals were conducted with great pomp. When the body was burnt upon a funeral pile, perfumes and wine were cast into the flames. Animals and slaves were anciently killed and heaped upon the pile, and gladiators made to fight to death at funerals, as blood was thought to be an acceptable offering to the spirit of the departed.

7. The Romans generally had three names to mark the different clans, families, and individuals of the same family. These were the *prænomen*, answering to our Christian name, the *nomen*, which marked the clan, the *cognomen*, which denoted the family. Sometimes an *agnomen*, or fourth name, given from some illustrious action, was conferred; as Scipio was termed *Africanus* for his conquests in Africa.

8. The fame of the Grecian literature first roused the Romans to emulation; and by degrees they arrived to a very high degree of perfection. The writings of the Augustan era would be considered equal to the happiest efforts of the Greeks, if they had the same originality. Livius, Andronicus, Plautus, Ennius, Cæcilius, and Terence, were early but excellent comic writers. Catullus and Horace were great lyric poets. The first was the earliest, and the last the best Latin writer in their department. Virgil, Ovid, Sallust, Livy and Cicero, were all distinguished writers in different styles. The last was the greatest orator of Rome.

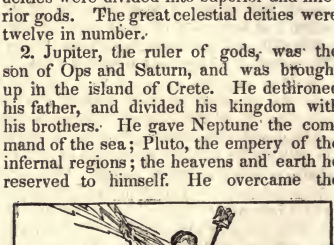
9. In the fine arts, the Romans showed an aptness to imitate, if not a genius to invent. The names of few Roman artists occur. Vitruvius wrote the only architectural work of the ancients which is extant. In mechanic arts, the Romans displayed great ingenuity. Although the Roman houses had neither glass windows nor chimneys, they made use of ingenious expedients to supply the want. The houses, at first mean and coarse, came at length to be perfect palaces. Pliny the younger has left us a description of his own villa. Villas abounded in the environs of Rome, and were indeed magnificent.

CHAPTER LXX.

MYTHOLOGY.

1. Ancient mythology contained an immense number of deities, each of whom had so many names, forms and attributes, that it would be impossible to enumerate them, or give any definite account of each. A sketch of the principal gods, however, may not be unimportant. The heathen deities were divided into superior and inferior gods. The great celestial deities were twelve in number.

2. Jupiter, the ruler of gods, was the son of Ops and Saturn, and was brought up in the island of Crete. He dethroned his father, and divided his kingdom with his brothers. He gave Neptune the command of the sea; Pluto, the empery of the infernal regions; the heavens and earth he reserved to himself. He overcame the



Jupiter.

Titans, giants who piled up mountains to scale heaven. He governed all things but the Parcæ or Fates, and shook heaven with his nod. He is commonly represented seated upon a throne of ivory, holding in his right hand a sceptre, and thunderbolts in his left; an eagle with expanded wings is at his feet. Juno, the queen of heaven, was

the sister and wife of Jupiter, and was described as lofty, graceful and magnificent. Juno was implacable in her resentments, and with reason, jealous of her husband. Her worship was the most solemn of all the heathen deities, as she presided over power, command and wealth, marriage and childbirth. She was represented seated on a throne, holding a sceptre in one hand, and a distaff in the other, wearing on her head a radiant crown, sometimes surrounded with colored rays. Her car was drawn by peacocks, which were therefore held sacred to her, and attended by nymphs.

3. Iris was the messenger of Juno, and the personification of the rainbow, on which she is represented descending with wings, lovely in face and person, her light, vari-colored dress floating in the wind, and beams of splendor playing round her head. Her office was to carry the commands of Juno, to create dissensions, and to release the souls of females from the pangs of death.

4. Minerva, called Athena and Pallas by the Greeks, the goddess of wisdom, sprang armed from the brain of Jupiter, whose skull was opened for the birth by Vulcan's axe. Minerva was the wisest of the goddesses, the adviser of Jupiter, and almost his equal. She was chaste, kind, and the patroness of liberal and useful arts; the personification of fortitude, courage, stratagem and policy. She appears generally in the form of a woman of large size, excellent proportions, and a grave and composed countenance. Armed with a helmet and breast-plate, her left hand holds a spear, her right the ægis, a shield covered with the skin of the goat Amalthea by which she was nursed, given her by Jupiter. The central boss of the buckler was the head of the Gorgon Medusa, with snaky hair, which had the power of turning the gazer into stone. An olive-wreath encircled the helmet which shadowed her blue eyes. Her emblems were the cock, the owl, the basilisk, and the distaff. Her assistance was invoked by statuaries, painters, and artists in general; in fact, by all ranks of society, since her influence extended over all.

5. Vesta was the goddess of fire, and the guardian of houses and hearths. At Rome she had a circular temple, founded by Numa, who instituted seven priestesses, called Vestal Virgins, to attend upon it. Their duty was to keep the sacred fire on the altar continually burning. The virgins were chosen between the ages of six and ten, and vowed to remain unmarried till the end of thirty years. If the vestal fire expired, it was thought to presage calamity, and if the vow of celibacy was violated, the offending vestal was buried alive. The flames were renewed by the sun during the kalends of March. Vesta is represented veiled, clad in a flowing robe, with a lamp or two-eared vase in one hand, and a javelin in the other.

6. Ceres, the goddess of corn, first taught mankind to cultivate the earth. The influence she exerted in this respect, caused men to pay her adoration. Pluto, the god of the infernal regions, having carried off her daughter Proserpine, Ceres applied to Jupiter to compel him to restore her. Jupiter promised that she should be restored if she had eaten nothing during her stay in Tartarus. Unfortunately, she had partaken of the seeds of a pomegranate. Ceres turned the informer into an owl, a bird, which, from its watchfulness, Minerva afterwards adopted. Jupiter, to comfort the goddess, permitted Proserpine to reside six months in heaven, while the other six she was forced to pass beneath the earth. The Eleusinian mysteries were rites of Ceres, celebrated in Greece, into which her worship was introduced by Erechtheus. Ceres is represented as a tall, majestic woman, crowned with wheat and ears of corn; in one hand she bears a bunch of poppies and corn, in the other a torch, which having lighted at mount Ætna, she carried over the earth in her search for her daughter.

7. Neptune, the brother of Jupiter, received from his hands the dominion of the sea, at the time Jupiter assumed the command of heaven and earth. The sea-god was at first dissatisfied at this arrangement, and as a punishment for his rebellion, was condemned by his brother to build the walls

of Troy. Rivers, as well as the sea, were subjected to him; he could cause earthquakes, and raise islands from the bottom of the ocean. Neptune contested with Minerva the right of giving a name to the city of Athens. Neptune produced a horse by striking the earth with his trident, Minerva raised an olive; which last being thought most serviceable, the city was called Athens, from the Greek name of the goddess of wisdom. The Isthmian games of the Greeks were in honor of Neptune, as were the Consualia of the Romans: at both of these, horses were led in procession, because Neptune produced the horse. Neptune is usually depicted black-haired and blue-eyed; he has an azure mantle, holding a trident in his right hand, and clasping his queen Amphitrite with the left. Sometimes he stands upright in his chariot, composed of a huge shell and drawn by dolphins and sea-horses; at other times, he appears seated, while his car glides rapidly over the surface of the swelling waters.

8. Venus, the goddess of love, beauty, and laughter, the mother of Cupid, sprang from the froth of the sea near Cythera,* on which she landed from a shell, and roses bloomed beneath her feet, and zephyrs played around her as she walked. Juno, Venus, and Minerva, had a contest for the prize of beauty, which Paris, who was judge, awarded to Venus. She was so beautiful that Momus, god of mirth, and a great satirist, found no defect in her person, and only complained that she made a noise in walking, as she retired from his presence. Her statues represent her as perfectly beautiful, with great grace of attitude, and an interesting and encouraging expression of countenance. She was noted for the cestus, or girdle, which made the charms of the female who wore it irresistible to the lover she desired to captivate. Venus is represented in a chariot drawn through the air by doves, swans, or sparrows. Sometimes, borne in a graceful shell, she sports upon the waters, surrounded by loves, dolphins and nymphs. Her drapery is light, and she is accompanied frequently by Hymen and the Graces; the former presiding over marriage, and the latter giving zest to beauty.

9. Cupid, representing the mild and sweet passion of love, was a charming boy with transparent wings, armed with a light bow and quiver full of arrows. His arrows represent the shafts of love, whose power it is not in the nature of man to resist. The bandage frequently placed over his eyes, indicates the perversion of the senses which prevents a lover from seeing the defects of his mistress; while Cupid has wings, because inconstancy is no infrequent trait of affection.

10. Vulcan was the god of fire, and patron of all artisans who worked in the metallic arts. He was brought up in heaven. He was kicked out of heaven by Jupiter for relieving his mother Juno, who had been suspended from heaven by a golden chain. Vulcan was nine days in falling, and struck Lemnos with such force that he was made a cripple for life. He worked for Jupiter, assisted by the Cyclops, servants of gigantic stature, with one eye in the centre of the forehead. Vulcan made Jove's thunderbolts, and forged arms for Achilles, at the instigation of Venus, his wife. He also made arms for the gods and demi-gods, and the furniture and carving of the golden chambers of heaven were his workmanship. Vulcan is usually represented standing naked at his anvil; in his left hand holding a thunderbolt with pincers, which he is preparing to strike with the hammer in his uplifted right hand.

11. Mars was the god of war, and, according to Ovid, the son of Juno alone. His education was intrusted to the god Priapus, who taught him dancing and warlike exercises. Mars was the patron of all that was bloody, fierce, and cruel. His priests at Rome were called the Salii, and were twenty-four in number. To them were intrusted the sacred bucklers, one of which was believed to have dropped from heaven. He was represented as an armed warrior, of a fierce aspect, extending

* Now Cerigo, an island on the coast of Laconia. The Phœnicians erected a famous temple to Venus there.

in one hand a spear, and brandishing in the other a blood-stained sword. Sometimes he is seen riding in a chariot drawn by furious horses, called *flight* and *terror*, which are driven by a mad woman—the genius of discord flying before him, that of clamor and dread rushing on behind.

12. Bellona, the sister of Mars, was goddess of war. She had a temple at Rome, in which the senate usually received ambassadors of foreign nations.

13. Mercury was the messenger of the gods; the god of eloquence, the patron of merchants; the inventor of the lyre, the guardian of poets and men of talents, and the conductor of departed spirits to their dwelling. He led the ghosts to the boat of Charon, who ferried them over the river Styx to the realm of Pluto; whence they were, after some time, permitted to revisit the earth. Mercury had a cap with wings, and sandals furnished with wings; his wand, called caduceus, was winged and entwined with two serpents. This had the power of lulling to sleep any waking person whom it touched, and of awakening any sleeper to whom it was applied. He touched the dying with it, and the soul gently separated from the body,—he laid it on the dead, and they arose to life.

14. Apollo, the son of Jupiter and Latona, was born at Delos, which is fabled to have risen for the purpose. He was the god of music, poetry, prophecy, the fine arts, and archery. His banishment from heaven was for killing the Cyclops; and he was obliged to hire himself to Admetus, a shepherd of Thessaly, in whose service he continued nine years. He is depicted as a tall young man with a faultless person, holding in his hand sometimes a bow and sometimes a lyre, his head crowned with laurel, and encircled with resplendent beams of light.

15. Diana, twin-sister of Apollo, was goddess of hunting. She was surnamed Triformis, as she was called Diana on earth, Luna in heaven, and Hecate in Tartarus. Actæon accidentally coming upon the goddess as she was solacing herself by bathing with her attendant nymphs after the pleasures of the chase, Diana, throwing water in his face, transformed him to a stag, and he was hunted to death by his own dogs. Diana is sculptured as a

Diana.

tall, a finely-formed female, lightly, but modestly attired, her feet shod in buskins, with a bow in her hand, and a full quiver gracefully depending from her shoulder.

16. Saturn was the god of time, and the chief of the Titans. Titan, his brother, gave up the kingdom to him on condition that he would bring up no male children. Saturn used therefore to devour his male offspring, but Jupiter and others were concealed from him, and Titan, considering the condition violated, made war upon Saturn, who was dethroned, and fled into Italy. The golden age, in which the earth sent up her productions spontaneously, is supposed to have been during the reign of Saturn. He is represented as a feeble and infirm old man, with a scythe in his hand, or a serpent biting off its own tail.

17. Janus, the god of the year, presided over the gates of heaven. His temple, open in time of war, and closed in time of peace, was shut only twice during the republic. He had two faces, looking before and behind, as at the past and future.

18. Rhea, the wife of Saturn, called also Ops, and by other names, was painted as a matron with a castle on her head, drawn by lions harnessed to her chariot.

19. Pluto, the king of the infernal regions, dwelt in a palace of gloomy magnificence, excluded from the light of heaven. Proserpine, his queen, was the goddess of death, and no one could die unless she cut off one of the hairs from his head. They

are depicted seated on a throne of sulphur, and riding over the streams of hell. This god's countenance was dismal, and he held a sceptre in his right hand, and a bunch of keys in his left.

20. Bacchus, the god of the vintage and of wine-bibbers, was frequently called Liber, or *free*, because wine frees the mind from care. He is represented as a plump young man, with an effeminate look, crowned with vine and ivy leaves, holding a thyrsus, or spear, twined with ivy. To his chariot were harnessed a lion and a tiger. His rites were performed every third year in the night.

21. Hercules belonged to the class of deities commonly called inferior. He was the son of Jupiter and Alcmena, and famous for strength and skill, by which he was able to perform the twelve labors imposed upon him by Eurystheus. His principal exploits were, killing the Nemæan lion, the Lernean hydra, the Erymanthean boar, the brazen-footed stag, the stymphalides, (voracious birds,) Diomedes and his horses who fed upon human flesh, the wild bull of the island of Crete, cleansing the Augean stables, subduing the Amazons and Centaurs, dragging Cerberus, the three-headed dog, from hell, carrying off the oxen of the three-bodied Geryon, fixing pillars in the straits of Gibraltar, bringing off the golden apples of the Hesperides, and killing their guardian dragon, slaying the giant Antæus, and the huge chief Cacus. Hercules is represented as a very muscular man, leaning on the club with which he slew the lion, and clad in the beast's skin.

22. Castor and Pollux sprang from Leda's egg; the first was an active wrestler, the last excelled in horsemanship. They both received the gift of immortality, living and dying six months alternately. The temple of Castor at Rome was dedicated to these twins. They were represented with caps upon their heads, riding on white horses, a star burning over each.

23. Pan was the god of shepherds, and exclusively a rural deity. He presided over fields, valleys, trees and mountains. Having goats' legs joined to the muscular body of a man, with a dark-colored skin, horns upon his head, and a beard, the gods were much amused with his ludicrous appearance when his father introduced him in heaven. He appeared clothed in leopard skin, holding a shepherd's crook, and a pipe formed of unequal reeds. He was supposed to be the author of strange sounds heard in solitary places. Hence causeless fear was called *panic*. At his festivals, his Roman priests ran naked through the streets, lashing all they met with whips. Women put themselves in the way willingly, for it was believed that all females who felt the lash would be happy mothers.

24. Æsculapius, the god of medicine, was worshipped at Rome under the form of a serpent, because a serpent was believed to be the longest lived of all animals.—A few more only, selected from the multitude of deities, will be noticed here.

25. The Fauni were believed to cause the nightmare. Vertumnus presided over merchandise and the change of seasons, and had the gift of transformation. Pomona, the goddess of gardens and fruit trees, made a vow of perpetual celibacy, and devoted herself to the occupation of agriculture.

26. Flora, the goddess of flowers, was a deity acknowledged by the Sabines before the foundation of Rome. She is represented under the figure of a most beautiful woman bearing a horn of plenty, and profusely crowned with garlands and flowers. The Romans celebrated her festivals in the season of flowers, with loose rites.

27. The temple of Terminus, the god of boundaries, was open at the top. The celebration of the festivals of Pales, an inferior goddess of sheep-folds and pastures, was distinguished for the spirit of its rustic gayety. The peasants perfumed their flocks with olive, pine, rosemary, laurel and sulphur. Mild cheese, milk, and boiled wine were the offerings, and the worshippers finished by leaping over and dancing round fires made of straw.

28. The Muses were nine beautiful virgins who presided over the sciences and arts in the following manner: Clio was the muse of history; Euterpe, of music and the modulation of sounds; Thalia, of comedy und pastorals; Melpomene, of

tragedy; Terpsichore, of dancing; Erato, of poetry, lyric, divine, and amatory; Polyhymnia, of rhetoric; Calliope, of epic poetry; and Urania, of astronomy.

CHAPTER LXXI.

SPAIN—SICILY.

1. A brief account has already been given of many of the principal tribes of Europe in the notes to the history of Rome, in the preceding portion of this work. The ancient European tribes were conquered or warred against almost as soon as they were discovered by the Romans, who, like Julius Cæsar, came, saw and conquered. When ambition filled the minds of the Roman people, no country was so poor as to prevent its captivity. The meanest, as well as the highest dominions fell under their power. We are often tempted to exclaim with the British chief, 'Can men who possessed such splendid palaces at home have envied the humble dwelling of Caractacus?'

2. Hispania, or Hispaniæ, was the ancient name of Spain. The poets, part of whose vocation it is to multiply epithets, called it also, Iberia, Hesperia, and Hesperia Ultima. The adventurous and mercantile Phœnicians first discovered Spain, and from their hands it passed into the power of the Carthaginians. The Romans, who obtained Spain at the termination of the second Carthaginian war, divided the country into *citerior* and *ulterior*, hither and farther Spain.

3. Hispania ulterior was afterwards parted into Bœtica and Lusitania, and Citerior was named Tarraconensis. Corduba, now *Cordova*, was the most famous city of Bœtica. It was situated on the Bœtis, now the Guadalquiver, and was the birthplace of the poet Lucan, and the two Senecas. Tarraconensis, whose capital was Tarraco, now Tarragona, was famous for its wines.

4. The inhabitants were a hardy and valiant race, to whom life appeared to be given for incessant action. When age and infirmities fell upon them, they voluntarily destroyed themselves. The mines of their country yielded gold and silver ore in abundance. The Romans employed forty thousand men in working them, and are said to have received as the proceeds of their labor, twenty thousand drachms daily. Quintilian, Martial, Mela and Silius, were born in Spain.

5. Sicily* was a delightful island, both from location and fertility. The original inhabitants of Sicily are feigned by the poets to have been Cyclops, the assistants of Vulcan, whose forges were placed upon this island. The Sicanians,† a people of Spain who passed into Italy, and thence to Sicily, gave this island the original name of Sicania.

6. The Siculi, having been driven from their settlements in Italy by the Opici, settled in Sicania, or Sicily, where, having conquered the Sicanians, they gave their own name to the island. This occurred about 1059 years B. C. Three hundred years after this, the Greeks and Phœnicians settled in Sicily. The Romans came into possession of Sicily, which they took from the Carthaginians, their predecessors in the place, in the second Punic war.

7. Syracuse, the most celebrated and magnificent of the Sicilian cities, was founded by Corinthians. The kingly government was abolished on account of the tyranny to which it gave rise in the different cities subjected to that form. Syracuse, however, was governed by Dionysius, a talented but tyrannical man, who, al-

* Sicily, situated near the bottom of Italy, was the largest and most celebrated island in the Mediterranean sea. Besides its other names, it was called Trinacria and Triquetra. On the plains of Enna in this island, Proserpine was gathering flowers when stolen away by Pluto. The air of these plains was so filled with the perfume of odoriferous plants, that, according to Diodorus, the hounds lost their scent in hunting there. Some suppose that Sicily originally formed a part of Italy, from which it was disjoined by a convulsion of nature.

† The Sicanians were so named from Sicanus, their king, or from the river Sicanus, which watered their possessions in Spain. When they passed into Italy, they conferred the name of their native country on it.

though driven from the city more than once for his mal-administration, not only found means to regain his sceptre, but to transmit it to his son.

8. Dionysius the younger was educated by Plato; but he remembered none of the precepts of his virtuous master. During the exile of Dion, his brother-in-law, he married his wife to one of the courtiers, and thereby exasperated Dion, who found means to raise an army, dethrone Dionysius and recover his wife. Dion, who ruled over Syracuse with ability and justice, was murdered.

9. Dionysius regained the throne, but finally resigned his authority when Timoleon came to Sicily. Marcellus besieged and took Syracuse, and subjected the island to the Roman sway, 212 years B. C. In their mode of life, the Sicilians were very luxurious, and the allusion to the *Siculæ mensæ*, Sicilian banquets, grew into a proverb. Ceres and Proserpine were the chief deities worshipped in the island.

CHAPTER LXXII.

GAUL.

1. The location and geographical divisions of ancient Gaul* have been already described. It remains to speak of some of the habits and peculiarities of the inhabitants. They were so warlike that their complete subjugation occupied the time and skill of Julius Cæsar for ten years.

2. The Gauls imagined that they were descended from Pluto, the god of the shades, and in consequence of this belief, they computed time not by days, but by the number of nights. Their funerals were the most splendid rites among them. Not only valuable articles were thrown into the flames which wrapped the pile, but cattle and slaves were sacrificed to the departed.

3. The children of the Gauls never appeared before their fathers until they were able to do military duty. The priests both of the Gauls and Britons were termed Druidæ, or Druids. They were divided into six classes: the Bardi, Eubages, the Vates, the Semnothei, the Sarronides, and the Samothei.

4. The Bardi were held in great repute by the Gauls. It was their place to sing to the accompaniment of musical instruments, the praises of the heroes of the country. Like all the orders of Gallic priests, the people almost paid them adoration, and at their sight two hostile and contesting armies would lay down their weapons and submit to their orders. They censured as well as eulogized the people, whom their reproaches depressed as much as their praises elevated.

5. The life of the Druids was distinguished by rigid and austere self-denial. They were clad in a tunic which came a little below the knees. The chief authority was vested in them, and they declared war or peace as they chose. They had the right even of deposing kings when they considered them unfit from any cause to wield the sceptre.

6. They appointed magistrates to preside over the cities, and their approbation was necessary to make the choice of a king valid. They taught the doctrine of the transmigration of souls; they believed in the immortality of the soul, and pretended to a knowledge of futurity. They asserted that the future was made manifest to them, and drew omens from their observation of the heavens.

7. In their sacrifices, they observed the inhuman custom of immolating men, which the Roman emperors prohibited with but partial success. Members of all ranks and classes of the community were allowed to be candidates to the sacerdotal offices; but

* Gallia Belgica, the largest province, was bounded by Germany, Gallia Narbonensis, and the German ocean. It contained the modern country of Alsace, Lorraine, and Picardy, with part of the low countries of Champagne and the isle of France. Gallia Narbonensis contained what are now Languedoc, Provence, Dauphine and Savoy. Gallia Aquitania contained the modern Provinces of Poiton, Santonge, Guienne, Berry, Perigord, Quercy, Limasin, Gascony, Auvergne, &c. Gallia Celtica contained the present Lyonnois, Touraine, Franche Comte, Senenois, Switzerland, and part of Normandy.

few would consent, for the sake of power, to undergo the painful severities imposed upon them by the rules of the order, and to pursue a course of study lasting ten or fifteen years, by which alone they could acquire all the maxims of the druidical religion. Their name, as has been mentioned, was derived from the Greek word (*drus*) meaning *oak*, because the deep recesses of silent and majestic forests were the favorite retreat of the Druids.

8. The inhabitants were calculated by their appearance to strike terror into the hearts of those before whom they presented themselves with hostile intentions. Gigantic and muscular, their eyes illumined with the fire of ferocity and daring, trained to arms from childhood, and obedient to impulse and the orders of their Druids, they formed a strong contrast to the Romans. The Celtic Gauls permitted their hair to grow to an extraordinary length, which gave them a terrific appearance, and procured for them the epithet *comata*. The inhabitants of Cisalpine Gaul, who were admitted to the rights of Roman citizens, and wore the toga, were thence called *togata*.

9. The men of Gallia Narbonensis had coverings for the thighs, and were thence named *braccata*. If the old inhabitants of Gaul differed greatly from the ancient Romans, they were yet more unlike the present inhabitants of France, and the greatest dissimilarity prevails between the modern and ancient city of Paris.

10. The city now called Paris, was a town of Belgic Gaul, situated at the junction of the Sequana and Matrona, (the *Seine* and *Marne*.) It was called Lutetia from the clay (*lutum*) which abounded in its vicinity. It was adorned and defended by fortifications erected by Julius Cæsar, and was thence sometimes called the city of Julius. It was for some time the residence of Julian the apostate.

11. The Franks, who originally inhabited a small district upon the right bank of the Rhine, gradually gained possession of Gaul, and gave it the name of France. The Franks are thought to have been a confederation of different tribes, who, upon the invasion of Germany by the Romans, united against them and took the name of Franks, or *freemen*. The Salii and Ansuarii, the two most formidable of the clans, composing the band of Franks, invaded Gaul between the years 234 and 254 A. C., but were exposed to a decided defeat by the Romans under Aurelian, then in his military tribuneship. They held undisputed possession of a part of the country, 264 A. C. Previous to Clovis, the first noted king of the French, who died 511 A. C., there reigned over the Franks, Pharamond, Clodio, Merovæus and Childeric.

CHAPTER LXXIII.

GERMANY—BRITAIN.

1. It has been conjectured, from a similarity in religion and manners, that the Germans had the same origin as the Gauls. Germany, when a part of the Roman empire, was bounded on the north by the Codanian gulf or sea, now the Baltic; on the south, by Illyricum and part of Dacia, on the east, by European Sarmatia, and on the west by Gaul.

2. The Germans were warlike and hardy, and their institutions were inimical to luxury and effeminacy. The youth were trained to arms, and early imbued with a veneration for military abilities. In fact, the heroes and warriors of Germany were regarded by the inhabitants as almost equal to the gods. No temples were erected to their deities.

3. The respect in which women were held by this people is worthy of remark. They considered them as superior beings to men, and in their whole intercourse with the gentler sex displayed a deference and delicacy worthy of the age of chivalry. Julius Cæsar invaded Germany, where his arms were successful. Tacitus has accurately described the customs of the ancient Germans.

4. The different tribes of Germany were all powerful. Among the most noted were the Suevi, who inhabited the country between the Elbe and the Vistula; the Cim-

bri, who, it will be remembered, invaded Italy, and were defeated by Marius; the Saxons, the Frisii, who dwelt in the country now Friesland, and the Quadi, whose country is now called Moravia.

5. These tribes were distinguished for an ardent love of their country, for a desire of conquest, and for an unshrinking spirit which no misfortune could subdue. They were no sooner apparently conquered, than they rose in arms again, and, to borrow an expression of lord Clarendon, used in reference to a different people, they could endure to be conquered much longer than the Romans could endure to conquer. They in time became the conquerors of Europe, to which they gave both laws and manners.

6. The first inhabitants of Britain are supposed to have been Celts. The very name of Britain was unknown to the Romans until the time of Julius Cæsar, who invaded it fifty-five years B. C. His soldiers were for a long time unwilling to embark for the island, imagining that they were actually leaving the world. The wild Britons, whose bodies were clad in the skins of beasts and disfigured by paint, seemed the fit representatives of supernatural beings. They had chariots in battle.

7. The worship of the Britons was similar to that of the Gauls, and their priests had the same name and functions. They were patriotic, and energetic. The country was called Britain from *brit*, a word in their language signifying paint, which they used upon their persons. The Angles, one of the tribes that conquered the island in the fifth and sixth centuries, gave it the name of England.

8. It is impossible to ascertain the date of the first settlement of the Gauls or Gaels in Britain. The Phœnicians, at a very early period, carried on a trade with the inhabitants of Cornwall for tin; but they were only acquainted with the coasts of Wales. The Romans have transmitted to us the first authentic account of the Britons.

9. The history of Julius Cæsar's first invasion of the island, and the successes of the various leaders who succeeded him, have been already detailed. Agricola systematically improved the conquest, and obtained more security for the inhabitants, by defeating the Scots, and forming a chain of forts to guard against their incursions from the frith of Clyde to that of Forth. To Adrian the natives were indebted for the erection of the wall between the river Tyne and the frith of Solway.

10. Severus added new and admirable fortifications to the wall, 208 years A. C. And the inhabitants enjoyed uninterrupted tranquillity until the Romans relinquished the province in the year 426 A. C. During the reign of Nero, London is described as a populous and flourishing town, enjoying a brisk trade. It was then called Londinium.

11. The interior of Caledonia, or Scotland, was but little known to the Romans, who termed it *Britannia barbara*, and rarely penetrated into it. The inhabitants were tall and muscular, and their reddish hair proclaimed their German origin. The Picts, so called from their custom of painting their bodies, were Scythians, a colony of whom settled in Scotland. Ireland was called Hibernia, Ibernia, Juverna, Iris, Hierna, Ogygia and Ivernia, by the ancients.

CHAPTER LXXIV.

SARMATIA—SCYTHIA, &c.

1. The boundaries of Sarmatia have been already given. The inhabitants were often confounded with the Scythians, from whom it is necessary to distinguish them. The Sarmatians were warlike and possessed of undaunted courage. Continually in motion, and inured to heat as well as cold, their bodies arrived at a wonderful state of strength and health.

2. They were very licentious and rude. Their chosen dwelling-place was the mountains, their food, milk mixed with horses' blood. The chariots they used in war were their only habitations in peace, which, with them, was seldom of long duration. They

delighted in battle, to which they rushed uttering horrible cries, as frightful to the ear as their painted bodies were terrific to the eye. These were the people who, under the names of Huns, Vandals, Goths, and Alians, finally ruined the Roman empire in the third and fourth centuries of the Christian era.

3. Scythia was a country the boundaries of which were unknown to the Romans, and which was generally divided into European and Asiatic. A slight geographical view of it has been presented. Its northern parts were uninhabited from the severity of the climate. The Scythians were divided into tribes; but they were a migratory race, and had no cities.

4. Some writers have represented the Scythians as having attained that degree of moderation and content which other nations in vain attempt to reach by study. Money possessed no attraction in their eyes, and the luxury of dress they despised. Clothing themselves in the skins of cattle, inured to sustain almost incredible fatigue, they yet fed upon milk; and their temperance preserved their health uninjured after the most arduous campaigns.

5. Others represent them as ferocious in the extreme, as feeding, without scruple, upon the flesh of the enemies they had sacrificed, and quaffing their blood in triumph and delight; as murdering incautious travellers whose bodies they destroyed, reserving the skulls as sacrificial vessels to be used in the worship of their strange deities.

6. The Scythians descended in force upon the southern provinces of Asia, where their wild valor was followed by success. A memorable irruption took place 624 years B. C., which resulted in the conquest of Asia Minor, of which the Scythians had possession for twenty-eight years. They even penetrated as far as Egypt.

7. Their form of government was monarchical. Nothing can exceed the deference they paid to their kings; it was like the worship of deities. On the occasion of the death of a monarch, his body was borne in a procession of the greatest solemnity through all the provinces, and finally received an interment attended with all honor.

8. The Dacians were a warlike nation of Germany beyond the Danube, the conquest of whose country, Dacia, was accomplished by the Roman emperor Trajan, after a war of fifteen years. Dacia is now divided into the modern countries of Walachia, Transylvania, and Moldavia. Illyria became a Roman province by the success of the prætor Anicius over the Illyrian king Gentius.

9. Scandinavia* was the country of the Goths. The name of Goths was applied to almost all the barbarous nations who invaded the Roman empire from the north, and the same characteristics appear to have been common to all. The distinctions between them appear to have been either undefined or but little noticed. Having already described their various political movements, an account of their manners and mythology may be looked for in a general view.

10. The Gothic or Scandinavian nations were all trained to feats of arms, which were inculcated by the religion in which they placed implicit belief. The rigors of their climate which they brought their bodies to endure, the contempt of luxury in food and raiment which they boasted, the stern and thorough self-denial which they practised, eminently qualified them to be the conquerors of the Romans, when they burst like an exterminating northern tempest over Italy.

11. It is believed that the Scythian and Scandinavian nations sprang from the same stock. They were all indebted for subsistence to pasturage and hunting, and for excitement to predatory warfare. All paid the utmost veneration to their women, and depended on the songs of their bards to perpetuate their fame, being wholly unlearned and inimical to learning.

12. The Scandinavians believed in su-

* Scandinavia embraced the whole tract of country now divided into Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Lapland, Finland, &c. The ancients were unacquainted with the boundaries of nations at the extreme northern parts of the empire, and imagined that Scandinavia was an island.

perior powers, which created the world, and connected with this was their implicit reliance upon fixed fate, by which all sublunary concerns were guided. Their religion impressed fighting on them as a duty, and they felt assured that death in battle enabled the soul to wing its flight at once to the halls of Odin.

13. In war, the fierce Scandinavian exulted, he triumphed in his contempt of dangers, and as life was fleeting from him, he spent his last breath in rehearsing the scenes of carnage through which he had passed undaunted and victorious, and the names of the warriors who had fallen beneath his arm. Thus living and thus dying, he felt sure of partaking of the pleasures of Valhalla, where fighting, and at intervals carousing upon beer drank from the skulls of their enemies, were the occupations of the blessed. The coward never entered Odin's hall.

14. Odin was the principal deity of the Scandinavians. His appearance was terrible, his joys were vengeance, death and battle. Frea, by Odin, was the mother of the various and less powerful divinities. Of these were Thor, who continually carried on a war with certain evil-minded giants led by Loke, and the celebrated virgins who ministered to departed heroes. The Scandinavians, in many customs, resembled the aborigines of America, particularly in their death songs.

15. Though there is a very great resemblance to be traced between the customs and manners of the Scandinavians and those of the ancient Germans, yet we must by no means conclude that their origin was the same. The ancient inhabitants of Germany and Gaul sprang from the Celtæ, who inhabited most of the European countries south of the Baltic before the irruption of the Scandinavian tribes and nations.

16. Horace has warmly eulogized the female Goths, and that nation in particular had always the reputation of being hospitable, generous, and well-disposed to the study of philosophy. Their government was a monarchy. Their disposition led them to make frequent inroads on the possessions of their neighbors, holding the ancient maxim of the superiority of might over right. Their weapons were lances and hatchets, which they used as missiles. They permitted, nay, even encouraged polygamy.

17. Among the Heruli there were some singular observances. Persons arrived at a certain age were killed, and the bodies lying on a funeral pile, reduced to ashes. Those wives who refused to strangle themselves on the tombs of their deceased husbands, were regarded universally with aversion and contempt. The Heruli were celebrated for their activity and bravery; but they were infamous for the most shameless and open sensuality. Their government was regal; but the kings possessed little power, and were hardly distinguished from their subjects.

18. The Huns came from the deserts of which China was the southern boundary. Fierce, warlike, and inured to the severities of climate, they at first fed upon uncooked roots and flesh. They despised all the conveniences of dress and dwelling, and both eat and slept on horseback. They were ignorant of the existence of a divinity, and had no guide but their fierce passions, which they scrupled not to gratify. They violated the most solemn oaths entered into with the Romans, whenever a chance offered of successfully invading their territory, and could frequently be bribed to turn their arms against each other.

CHAPTER LXXVI.

EGYPT.

1. Egypt* was settled and governed as a kingdom at a very early age; but its

* Egypt had the Mediterranean sea on the north, Arabia on the east, and Libya on the west. Egypt is divided into Upper, which lies near the south, Lower Egypt near the Mediterranean, and Middle Egypt. Upper Egypt was rendered famous by the city of Thebes, although Lower Egypt was by far the most populous, and contained a number of large islands, which, from their form, were called by the name of the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet, Delta. This country

primitive history is wrapped in the deepest obscurity. Nothing is known concerning its first kings after Menes. Menes is supposed to be the same as Misraim, who is mentioned in the Old Testament among the sons of Ham. Menes founded the Egyptian empire 2188 years B. C., or, according to recent writers, 2800 B. C.

2. The children of Menes divided the land into four kingdoms, Thebes, Thin, Memphis, and Tanais. These flourished for several centuries, during which the people became quite civilized; but after the union of the different kingdoms under one government, they relapsed into barbarism under the sway of the shepherd kings, which endured rather more than two centuries. The time of this period of barbarism is believed to have been 2084 years B. C.

3. The Hycsos, or shepherd kings, according to Manetho, held possession of all Lower Egypt for two hundred and fifty-nine years. They invaded the country when it was governed by Timaus, one of the successors of Menes. Menes was enterprising and popular. By turning aside the course of the Nile, he was enabled to choose a site for the city of Memphis within its bed, and to rescue a great part of the country, which had previously been a morass, from the waters. He instructed his subjects in theology, instituted splendid entertainments, and introduced luxury.

4. In a very remote period, Athotes I. was king in the country of Thebes, and at his death received divine honors under the form of Mercury. Of his successors for a long time, it is only known that his two sons divided the kingdom between them at his death. Venephes, king of Thin, was the builder of some pyramids, and during his reign and that of his successors, there was a dreadful famine and pestilence.

5. Tosorthos was monarch of Memphis at no very distant period from Menes; but the exact date is, of course, unknown. Tradition has ascribed to him the invention of architecture and writing, and he was styled Æsculapius from his knowledge of medicine. Of the condition of Tanais, during this time, we have received no knowledge from antiquity, and but little dependence can be placed on the accounts of the other kingdoms. These events occurred previously to the calling of Abraham, 1921 years B. C.

6. Under the head of Sacred History will be detailed the life and adventures of Abraham, who entered Egypt the year after the famine in Canaan. Nitocris and Sesostris, the former a female, the latter a male sovereign, ruled over Egypt at this epoch. Nitocris began her reign at Memphis, 1678 years B. C. She extended her kingdom by the addition of some other possessions. A few imagine that the reign of Sesostris preceded that of Nitocris.

7. The brother of Nitocris, her predecessor on the throne, was an Ethiopian, who was assassinated by the Egyptians. His sister, on ascending the throne, burned to avenge his death, and contrived the means of doing so privately. She built a subterranean banqueting-hall, gloomy but splendid, and having singled out her victims, invited them to feast beneath the surface of the earth.

8. Here the deluded Egyptians gave themselves up to pleasure. The singularity of the scene of their revel gave a wild tone to their merriment. The place seemed in reality fitter for a tomb than a palace. It was shortly to become so. While a smile was upon each lip, and the wine cup in each hand, a loud, strange sound startled

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was principally formed by the mud and sand washed down by the Nile. The fertility of the Egyptian soil originates in the annual inundation of the Nile, which gives the face of the country the appearance of a vast lake, above whose surface rise various villages and towns. The air is unwholesome, but the population immense, and the increase of cattle great. It is asserted that Egypt at one time contained twenty thousand cities. Thebes was the principal city of Thebais, and famous for its hundred gates, from which it was named Hecatompylos. In its days of glory, it sent forth two hundred chariots and twenty thousand fighting men from each gate. Even in the age of Juvenal, few traces remained of these. The ruins of the Egyptian cities yet fill the beholder with wonder—the vast temples, obelisks and columns are of inconceivable vastness and majesty. Memphis was on the western banks of the river Nile, above the Delta. Near this city were raised those prodigious pyramids which are yet the wonders of the world.

the assembly. Conjecture was at a loss to explain its meaning.

9. Through a door which was flung forcibly wide open, rushed a current of chill air, and, with the noise of thunder, in an instant after, a river which the vengeful

Egyptians destroyed by Nitocris.

queen had turned into a secret passage, came pouring in upon the banquet hall. The beautiful but cruel Nitocris knew, by the dead hush following the deluge, that the work of death was complete. She eluded the immediate resentment of the people, and preserved her power.

10. Sesostris was one of the most noted and victorious of all the Egyptian kings. With a forethought of his future greatness, his father made all the males born on the same day with Sesostris, the companions of that prince, and educated them in the same manner. Thus Sesostris found himself, on arriving at maturity, encircled by a band of faithful followers, with whose minds and habits he was perfectly familiar, and to whom his own ideas and wishes were equally manifest.

11. Sesostris, on succeeding to his father's throne, having divided his kingdom into thirty-six districts, determined to become conqueror of the world, and accordingly left his dominions with an army consisting of six hundred thousand foot, twenty-four thousand horse, and twenty-seven thousand armed chariots. After conquering Lybia, Ethiopia, Arabia, and the islands of the Red sea, he is said to have penetrated Asia, and pushed his conquests to a very great extent.

12. He subdued the Thracians in Europe, and that his successes might be long remembered, he erected columns in various countries which he had subdued, each bearing this inscription: 'Sesostris, the king of kings, has conquered this territory by his arms.' His insolence and unfeeling conduct toward his conquered enemies, have been deservedly denounced. He harnessed the unhappy princes he had taken captive, four abreast, and forced them to drag his triumphal chariot to the temple.

13. On his return with gratified ambition, Sesostris devoted himself to the improvement of his native land, the increase of its revenues, the encouragement of the fine arts, and the embellishment of the cities. He is said to have erected one hundred temples to the gods, in gratitude for his distinguished victories. He raised earthen hills for the erection of cities in which the inhabitants might be undisturbed by the inundations of the Nile, and he dug some canals near Memphis to facilitate navigation. Finding himself, in his old age, grown blind and infirm, and unable from pride to continue to exist, this monarch, after a reign of forty-four years, committed suicide. The accounts of his reign and conquests are, at best, but of doubtful authenticity, and must be received with caution.

CHAPTER LXXVII.

EGYPT—CONTINUED.

1. Pheron is believed to have succeeded Sesostris. Rameses Tubaete is thought to have been the king whose dreams were explained by Joseph. The history of Joseph most properly belongs to sacred history, and yet, as he was an Egyptian ruler, it will be touched upon here.

2. The whole story of Joseph exemplifies the wisdom and benevolence of God. Hated unjustly by his brethren, who were exasperated at the humble tokens of love bestowed upon him by their father Jacob, they sold him to some merchants as a slave, and he was again purchased in Egypt by

Potiphar, an officer of the king, who was termed Pharaoh, a name common to the Egyptian monarchs.

3. When, having escaped the dangers with which the resentment of Potiphar's wife threatened him, and having risen into favor with the king, from his wise interpretation of dreams, and his subsequent good conduct, his treatment of his brethren when they came to purchase corn, showed the untouched goodness and gentleness of his heart. After having invited his father and brethren into Egypt, he allotted them a fertile portion of the country, where their circumstances were flourishing.

4. The death of Joseph took place 1635 years B. C. Within forty years after this event, arose a king (Pharaoh,) who proved the cruel oppressor of the Israelites. Notwithstanding his cruel order by which his people were to drown every new-born son among the Hebrews, they waxed numerous and mighty. This very command proved the means of preparing for them a deliverer in the person of Moses, who was exposed in a basket of bulrushes, found by the king's daughter, and educated at the court. He led them from bondage.

5. Pharaoh pursued the retreating Israelites, as, under the guidance of Moses and the protection of God, they found a path over the bottom of the Red sea, with a wall of waters on each side. The host of the

Pharaoh and his Host.

tyrant was overwhelmed by the return of the waves to their accustomed resting-place. Apophis is supposed to have been this Pharaoh.

6. Amosis, Amenophis II. and other monarchs of Egypt, were conquerors and warriors; but no particulars concerning them are extant, and the whole history of their period is involved in uncertainty. Mœris,* an Egyptian monarch, benefited his country greatly by causing the excavation of an immense pit to receive the waters of the Nile during an excessive inundation, and to serve as a reservoir from which supplies of water might be drawn during a time of drought.

7. Hermes Trismegistus was a priest and philosopher of Egypt, from whom his countrymen learned the cultivation of the olive, the measurement of land, and the art of deciphering and writing hieroglyphics. He is said to have composed thirty books of theology, medicine and geography, from which the Theogonia of Sanchoniathon, the Phœnician, was principally taken. He added five days to the year, which previously contained but three hundred and sixty.

8. Amosis is noted for having abolished human sacrifices, and for being the conqueror of Heliopolis,† the ancient capital of Lower Egypt. Actisanes, a king of Ethiopia, united Egypt with his own country, and governed the people of both nations with ability and equity. He seized the robbers who infested Egypt, and had their noses cut off, after which he banished them to the extremity of the desert between Syria and Egypt, where he erected a town for them, and, to perpetuate their disgrace, called it Rhinocolura.

9. A Memphite, named Cetes, of ignoble birth, but of an able mind, who ascended the Egyptian throne, was passed upon the people as a sorcerer by their priests, who attributed to him the power of transformation. The Greeks called this monarch Proteus. Paris and Helen, on their way

* The lake he dug was two hundred and twenty miles in circumference, and in it were two pyramids six hundred feet high, one half of which was above the surface of the water, the other half beneath. Modern travellers inform us that its circumference is about fifteen leagues.

† Now *Matarea*. It contained a famous temple dedicated to the sun, and an oracle of Apollo.

to Troy, having been driven on the coasts of Egypt by a storm, were ordered by Cetes to leave his kingdom as soon as he was made aware of the nature of the crime which Paris had committed.

10. Shishak, another Egyptian king, erected many temples and cities, caused canals to be cut, and conquered Jerusalem, spoiling its temple. Rameses was of a miserly nature. Religious ceremonies and public improvements did not diminish his treasures, which at his death were found to amount to four hundred thousand talents. Both Rameses and Shishak are by many writers supposed to be the same as Sesostris; but Sesostris appears to have lived at a yet more distant period.

11. Memnon or Amenophis IV. was a monarch of great renown, who made a successful expedition against the Bactrians. His gigantic statue, when the rays of the rising sun fell upon it, uttered a strain of pleasing melody; but the sunset beams drew forth a sound of sorrow. Strabo, who testifies the truth of this, confessed himself unable to distinguish whether the sound proceeded from the base of the statue or the people who surrounded it. It was dismantled by Cambyses when he conquered Egypt.

12. After Thuoris, who, by losing the Egyptian possessions in the east, confined Egypt within its original boundaries, that country was separated into several small kingdoms, and remained so divided for the space of more than forty years. In the period which intervened between the years 752 and 490 B. C., Egypt was governed by Sabbacon, Tharaca, Pharaoh Necho, Psammenitus, and some other monarchs.

CHAPTER LXXVIII.

EGYPT—CONTINUED.

1. Sabbacon was a king of Ethiopia who invaded Egypt, killed Nechus, one of its kings, burnt Bocchoris, another monarch, and forced the blind Anysis to retire for safety into the dangerous and unwholesome morasses. His reign in Egypt was characterized by ability and justice, and he returned to Ethiopia, relinquishing his conquest because he could not determine to slay the priests, in obedience to the reputed suggestion of the tutelar deity of Thebes.

2. Tharaca, the Tirhaka of the sacred writings, made war upon Sennacherib, the famous Assyrian monarch. At the end of his reign, there was an anarchy of two years' duration, and an aristocracy of twelve governors, which lasted fifteen years. Pharaoh Necho, invading Assyria and Judea, killed king Josiah, took Jerusalem, and made Jehoiachim king, after having immured Jehoahaz in a dungeon.

3. Psammenitus had possessed the throne but six months when Cambyses, king of Persia, invaded the kingdom, 525 years B. C. Psammenitus was twice beaten at Pelusium* and Memphis. Cambyses, being well acquainted with the superstitions of the Egyptians, placed in the front of his army a number of cats and dogs, animals which he knew the Egyptians worshipped as divinities, and whom they refused to kill, preferring to be themselves conquered.

4. The loss of his kingdom so early, and the indignities which Cambyses heaped upon the gods of his country, powerfully affected Psammenitus, although treated by the conqueror with courtesy and kindness. He could not rest content with this, and planned a revolt against Cambyses, which that conqueror discovered, and forced the Egyptian to swallow a quantity of bull's blood, in consequence of which he died.

5. Four hundred and thirteen years B. C., Amyrthæus, with the aid of the Greeks, defeated the Persians under Darius Nothus, a distant successor of Cambyses, and restored the independence of Egypt, which it maintained under the government of eight kings, viz: Psammeticus, whose reign commenced 408 B. C.; Nephereus, 396; Acoris, 389; Psammathis, 376; Nepherites, four months, and Nec-

*Pelusium was situated near one of the mouths of the Nile, called from it Pelusian. Its neighborhood abounded in swamps and marshes. It was celebrated for its manufacture of linen stuffs, and was the key to Egypt on the Phœnician side. For this reason it was strongly fortified and garrisoned. It is now called *T'ineh*, and in ruins.

tanebis, 375; Tachos, or Teos, 363; and Nectanebus, 361.

6. Under the last king, the Egyptians were conquered by Ochus, king of Persia, 350 B. C. During his invasion of Egypt, he despoiled the temples and murdered the priests. He was himself poisoned by his chief minister. Egypt now remained thirty years enslaved to Persia, at the expiration of which time, Alexander the Great conquered it, 332 years B. C. At the death of Alexander, Ptolemy Lagus, who had been appointed its governor, founded the dynasty of Ptolemies or Lagidæ, 323 years B. C.

7. The reign of Ptolemy Lagus was prosperous and active. Previous to assuming the title of king of Egypt, he had subdued Syria, Phœnicia, and Jerusalem. From the latter place he led one hundred thousand captives to people the city of Alexandria, which then became the capital of his dominions. These people he attached by manifold acts of kindness, and by bestowing on them the greatest benefits. He then subdued Cyprus.

8. Demetrius and Antigonus disputing his right to the provinces of Syria, Ptolemy turned his victorious arms on them. The Rhodians, grateful for the aid he lent them in the war with their common enemies, bestowed upon him the name of Soter, or Savior. The love of arms and conquest did not prevent him from attending to the domestic interests of the people. On learning that the bay of Alexandria was difficult of access, he erected a light-house to guide homeward-bound vessels in the night time.

9. The light-house was built upon Pharos, a small island in the bay of Alexandria, about seven furlongs from the continent. It was connected with the Egyptian shore by Dexiphanes, who erected a causeway for that purpose, 284 years B. C. The light-house, which was termed the tower of Pharos, was planned by the architect Sostratus. It was built of pure white marble, and was visible at the distance of one hundred miles.

10. The tower of Pharos was considered one of the seven wonders of the world, and cost the Egyptian king eight hundred talents, which, if Attic, are equivalent to more than 165,000 pounds English, if Alexandrian, to more than 330,000 pounds. Ptolemy caused this inscription to be placed on it: 'King Ptolemy to the gods, the saviors, for the benefit of mariners.' This inscription, however, was only carved in mortar, which decayed in a short time, and falling away, discovered an inscription deeply cut in the marble by the architect, who was determined that the fame of the builder should outlive that of the projector. The architect's inscription was as follows: 'Sostratus, the Cnidian, to the gods, the saviors, for the benefit of mariners.'

11. Ptolemy also encouraged literature. He established a society called the Museum, the members of which, being supported at the public expense, occupied themselves in the pursuit of philosophy, and in forwarding the progress of the sciences and liberal arts. This monarch was the founder of the famous Alexandrian library.

12. Not only was Ptolemy Lagus eminent as a successful commander, and a wise and enterprising monarch, but his abilities as a writer have also been the subject of much commendation, and it is to be regretted that none of his works have descended to us. The loss of his history of Alexander the Great, admired and valued for its accuracy and elegance, is greatly to be deplored. He died in the eighty-fourth year of his age, after a brilliant reign of thirty-nine years, 284 years B. C.

CHAPTER LXXIX.

EGYPT—CONTINUED.

1. The second Ptolemy was a son of Lagus, who, for the ten years preceding his sole occupation of the throne, 284 years B. C., had been admitted to share it with his father. Ptolemy II. was called Philadelphus, or lover of his brother, in derision, because he killed two of his brethren. He no sooner ascended the throne than he gave evidence of the possession of great abilities. Well knowing the advantages re

sulting from alliances between powerful nations, he solicited the friendship of the Romans soon after their conquest of Pyrrhus and the Tarentines.

2. The Romans received the ambassadors of Philadelphus with marked attention, and sent four senators to his court to pay him respect, and assure him of their good disposition towards him. These men proved their integrity and disinterestedness by refusing the golden crowns and presents which were offered them. Magas, king of Cyrene,* the brother of the Egyptian monarch, revolted at the instigation of Antiochus, king of Syria. Tranquillity was restored by the death of Magas.

3. When Antiochus married Berenice, the daughter of Ptolemy, that monarch, undeterred by his years, accompanied her to the court of the Syrian king, and was a conspicuous person at the celebration of the nuptials. He greatly lamented the death of Arsinoe, his sister and wife, and he planned a magnificent and curious monument to her memory. The execution of his project he intrusted to Dinocrates, an architect of Macedonia, who was patronised by Alexander the Great.

4. This man offered to cut mount Athos into the form of a giant holding a city in one hand, and in the other a basin, into which all the streams of the mountain were to flow. Alexander refused to encourage this proposal, which seemed too chimerical; but, respecting the genius of the architect, he employed him on the buildings and embellishments of Alexandria.

5. Dinocrates entered with eagerness into the plans of Philadelphus, and commenced the erection of a temple to Arsinoe. They proposed to suspend the body of the queen in air by means of loadstones, in the interior of a building of vast size and funereal magnificence. The death of both the artist and his patron, put an end to a work which would have been the glory of Egypt, and the wonder of the world to all ages.

6. The reign of Philadelphus was distinguished for the encouragement afforded to industry, useful knowledge, the liberal arts, and commerce. The inhabitants of neighboring countries were induced, by the most brilliant prospects, to settle by crowds in Egypt. The king, by means of two immense fleets, one upon the Red, the other on the Mediterranean sea, made his kingdom the mart of the world. Thirty-three thousand three hundred and thirty-nine cities flourished beneath his sway.

7. His army consisted of two hundred thousand foot soldiers, and forty thousand mounted men; of three hundred elephants, and two hundred armed chariots. He was called the richest monarch of his time, and with justice, for his treasury was found to contain at his death, two hundred millions sterling. He was the patron of many learned men, among whom we may notice Euclid and Theocritus. The Greek translation of the Old Testament, called, from being the work of seventy persons, the Septuagint, is said to have been done in his age.

8. The son of Philadelphus succeeded to his father's throne, 246 years B. C. Being apprised of the ill treatment which his sister Berenice received from Antiochus Theus, he resolved to punish him, and his progress through Syria and Cilicia was rapid and victorious, and only stopped by a sedition at home, which he was forced to return and quell.

9. He brought back with him to Egypt immense riches, and among other things of value, twenty-five hundred statues of Egyptian deities, which Cambyses had carried off to Persia. The zeal of the Egyptian monarch in the cause of their religion was acknowledged by his subjects in the name of Evergetes which they gave him. During the latter part of the reign of Evergetes, the Jews refused to pay the annual tribute of twenty silver talents which had been imposed upon their ancestors.

10. Ptolemy Evergetes was an ally of Cleomenes, king of Sparta, whom he as

* Cyrene was a celebrated city of Libya, to which Aristæus, one of the early settlers there, gave the name of his mother. It was eleven miles distant from the Mediterranean sea, and capital of that country, called *Pentapolis*, from the five cities it contained.

sisted against the members of the Achæan league. The defeat of that monarch was a source of mortification to the Egyptian king, who was forced to offer his friend an asylum at his court. Evergetes was a great patron of learning, and was well spoken of, even by his natural enemies. He is reported to have given the Athenians fifteen talents for permission to make translations from the original manuscript dramas of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides. He died 221 years B. C., after a reign of twenty-five years.

11. Evergetes was succeeded by his son, 221 years B. C. The new monarch was ironically named *Philopater*, lover of his father, from a strong presumption that he had poisoned Evergetes. His reign commenced with disastrous proofs of his avarice, jealousy, and suspicion. He successively destroyed his mother, his wife, his sister, and his brother.

12. His extravagance and licentiousness were unbounded. He appeared in the streets of Alexandria with the dress and gestures of a bacchanal, and again as a priest of Cybele. There broke upon his ear, however, while he revelled, the trumpet notes of war. Antiochus was his antagonist. At the head of a numerous and finely equipped army, he penetrated the kingdom of Syria, which, if he had used his successes with prudence, he might have annexed to his Egyptian territories.

13. At Jerusalem the Jews prevented him by force from polluting the interior of their temple with his presence, and for this behavior on their part, he resolved to sacrifice the whole nation to his resentment. He assembled an immense number of them on a large plain, and exposed them to be crushed under foot by his elephants. But these noble creatures, instead of injuring the Jews, turned upon the Egyptian spectators, a circumstance which made so powerful an impression on Philopater that he afterwards treated the Jewish nation with extreme kindness.

14. The Romans renewed their alliance with the Egyptians during the reign of Philopater. He at length died in the thirty-seventh year of his age, 204 years B. C. His death was the consequence of his continual intemperance and excesses. His reign lasted seventeen years. As soon as he was dead, the Egyptians seized upon the companions of his hours of luxury and guilty ease, put them to death, and dragged them through the streets of Alexandria.

CHAPTER LXXX.

EGYPT—CONTINUED.

1. The fifth Ptolemy, although but four years old, immediately ascended the throne upon his father's death. During the period of his minority, the government was prudently administered by Sosicius and Aristomenes, who caused Antiochus to relinquish the provinces of Syria and Palestine, which he had conquered in war.

2. On the conclusion of the second Punic war, the Romans sent an embassy to renew their friendly alliance with Egypt. On this occasion, Aristomenes offered to relinquish the protection and guidance of the young king to the Romans; but they, with flattering encomiums, confirmed the regent in his authority. Aristomenes made a treaty of alliance with the Achaians, and convinced the Egyptians of his integrity, sound policy, and steady ability in the discharge of the complicated and various duties of government.

3. The minority of the young monarch had now expired, he being fourteen years of age, the Egyptians fixing that as the period at which the guardianship of minors ceased. The young Ptolemy was saluted with the surname of Epiphanes, or the illustrious, and was crowned at Alexandria with uncommon solemnity, receiving the sceptre which Aristomenes, having wielded it with honor for ten years, now resigned into his hands.

4. Epiphanes, now master of his actions, at once displayed the evil propensities which he had inherited from his father. Aristomenes, who endeavored to oppose the gratification of the king's evil desires by the best advice and sagest counsel, was

sacrificed to his resentment. The cruelties of the new monarch excited seditions among his subjects, which were quelled by the prudence of Polycrates, the best of his bad ministers.

5. Epiphanes was very desirous of preserving the friendship of the Romans, and, for this purpose, offered to assist them with money against his father-in-law Antiochus, whom he hated for spreading seditions through the very heart of Egypt. To Cleopatra, the daughter of Antiochus, he was at first attached. Having threatened to rob his ministers to obtain treasure for the prosecution of a war against Seleucus, king of Syria, they conspired and murdered him after a reign of twenty-four years, 180 years B. C.

6. The son of Epiphanes, Ptolemy Philometor, so called from his hatred of his mother Cleopatra, succeeded his father on his throne. He was only six years old at the death of Epiphanes, and during the minority of the king, the government was in the hands of Cleopatra till her death, and afterwards administered by a favorite eunuch.

7. Philometor made war against Antiochus Epiphanes, in the course of which he fell into the hands of his foe, and was kept in close confinement. This was the signal for the Egyptians to elevate to the throne the brother of Philometor, Ptolemy Evergetes, a son of Epiphanes, and called also Physcon. Antiochus was no sooner aware of this, than he poured a powerful army into Egypt, drove Physcon from the throne he had usurped, and restored Philometor thereto.

8. Philometor soon comprehended the motives of this artful proceeding on the part of Antiochus, who held in his possession the city of Pelusium, the key to Egypt. The Egyptian king now invited his brother Physcon to share his throne, and together they concerted measures to defeat Antiochus, who invaded Egypt in force, but was checked by the Romans.

9. No sooner was the storm averted, than the brothers began to dispute between themselves. Physcon, again driven from the throne, and finding few able partisans in his own country, betook himself to Rome, where he thought to move the compassion of the Romans by living in an obscure manner, and going clad in a wretched garb.

10. The senate settled the controversy by giving Libya and Cyrene to Physcon, and confirming Philometor in the possession of Egypt. Physcon was soon dissatisfied with this arrangement, and attempted to get Cyprus under his dominion, and the Romans, willing to pave the way for their own aggrandisement, favored the designs of Physcon.

11. Philometor positively refused to yield to his brother, and fomented civil discord in Cyrene, to withdraw his attention from Cyprus. In the midst of these contentions, however, Philometor died, 145 B. C., after a reign distinguished by clemency and moderation, leaving Egypt and its dependencies to Physcon.

CHAPTER LXXXI.

EGYPT—CONTINUED.

1. Physcon, who was called so from his corpulence, ascended the throne on the death of his brother, and, having reigned conjointly with Philometor, was confirmed in his authority, although the wife and child of the late monarch yet survived him. The claims of Cleopatra were urged by the Jews; but the controversy was ended by a proposal which came from Physcon that he should marry the queen, and that the son of Philometor should mount the throne at his uncle's death.

2. This was agreed to; Cleopatra and Physcon were united, but on the very day of their marriage, the tyrant stabbed her son in Cleopatra's arms. This was a prelude to other acts of infamy. He ordered that he should be called Evergetes by his subjects, but they unanimously gave him the name of Kakergetes, the evil doer, a well-merited title; for a series of acts of oppression and barbarity gave incontestable evidence of a wicked disposition.

3. The Alexandrians abandoned their

city, which reeked with the blood of its inhabitants, and sought an asylum in Greece and Syria, into which they carried the arts and professions which had insured prosperity to their country. Having repudiated Cleopatra, the king married her daughter by Philometor, likewise named Cleopatra. The unremitted exertions of his ministers kept the Egyptians in a state of tolerable tranquillity, until the murder of all the young men of Alexandria, by order of Physcon, threw the whole country into revolt.

4. Physcon now found himself without a single friend, and fled for safety to Cyprus. After his flight, Cleopatra ascended the throne, and Physcon, fearing that Memphitis, his son by his sister Cleopatra, would be made king by the Alexandrians, ordered him to Cyprus, and killed him as soon as he set foot upon the island. He gave the first intelligence of this event to Cleopatra, as she was preparing to celebrate her birth day, by sending her the limbs of Memphitis.

5. He managed to raise a powerful army, with which he entered Egypt and defeated Cleopatra, compelling her to seek refuge with her eldest daughter Cleopatra, who had married Demetrius, king of Syria. Physcon lived, hated and feared by his subjects, whom he ruled twenty-nine years, dying in the sixty-seventh year of his age, about 119 years B. C. He has been commended by some writers for a love of literature.

6. The son of Physcon succeeded him. This prince was surnamed Lathyrus, for a wart like a pea upon his nose. He was no sooner crowned than his mother deprived him of his authority, and placed the diadem upon the brows of his brother, her favorite son Ptolemy Alexander. Lathyrus, having become king of Cyprus, attacked Alexander Jannæus, king of Judea, who had enabled Cleopatra to expel him.

7. During his war with the Jews, Lathyrus committed a most brutal action. He put to death an immense number of females and infants, and threw their limbs into caldrons of boiling water, wishing to terrify the Jews by impressing them with the idea that his troops were cannibals. The death of Alexander Ptolemy restored the throne of Egypt to Lathyrus, who died about 81 years B. C. He was succeeded by his only daughter Cleopatra, who was married and murdered by Alexander, the son of Ptolemy Alexander I.

8. The eleventh Ptolemy was an illegitimate son of Lathyrus, named Alexander He was called Auletes, the flute player, from his musical skill. His predecessor had bequeathed the kingdom to the Romans, and Auletes was forced to purchase it of Cæsar, for the sum of 162,500 pounds. His subjects, however, disgusted at his meanness, revolted, and he was forced to seek refuge at Rome, where he solicited the aid of the Romans to regain his throne.

9. Meanwhile his daughter Berenice, having married Archelaus, a priest of Bellona, established herself upon the throne, from which she was expelled on the approach of Gabinius with a Roman army. Auletes having recovered his kingdom, sacrificed Berenice to his resentment. He died about 51 years B. C., leaving two sons and two daughters. His will directed the eldest son to marry the eldest daughter, and reign conjointly over the Egyptians.

10. Pompey the Great was appointed protector and guardian to the two young sovereigns, Ptolemy, surnamed Dionysius, or Bacchus, and Cleopatra, the noted companion of Mark Antony. Bacchus was ruled by perfidious ministers, who compelled him to reject the assistance of Pompey, and finally to have that great general murdered, when, in his distress, he sought protection of the Egyptian king.

11. Cæsar received with indignation Ptolemy's present of Pompey's head, and on arriving in Egypt found the king faithless to his own interests. He however caused the will of Auletes to be read aloud, confirming Cleopatra and Ptolemy in the possession of Egypt, and made the younger children rulers over Cyprus.

12. A mere tool in the hands of his unwise and wicked ministers, Ptolemy refused to recognise Cæsar as a mediator,

and the Roman enforced his decision by defeating the Egyptian armies in three battles. Ptolemy, who had long been a prisoner in the hands of Cæsar, escaped, headed his army, was defeated, and finally drowned in the passage of the Nile, about 46 years B. C.

13. Cleopatra, knowing the Egyptians to be unfavorably disposed to female government, by the advice of Cæsar, married her younger brother Ptolemy, who was in his eleventh year. This youth Cleopatra soon poisoned, 43 years B. C., and on the arrival of Mark Antony, resolved to captivate that conqueror. A pretty full account of her connection with the Roman has been given under the head of Rome.

14. An anecdote of her extravagance is given by Pliny, and worthy of recollection. Cleopatra wagered that she could expend more than 50,000 pounds upon one banquet, and, taking a pearl ear-ring valued at that price, she dissolved it in a goblet of acid, and swallowed it. She was prevented from throwing away the corresponding pearl by the address of a friend.

15. Her attachment to Antony was insincere, for, although she refused to accept the favors of Octavius after the battle of Actium on condition of killing Antony, she consented to deliver him up to his enemies, and resign her throne to them. It is true that the sight of the man with whom she had passed so many hours of revel, dying for her sake, overwhelmed her, and that she softened his parting moments with her kisses and embraces; but it was personal pride which caused her self-sacrifice. Cleopatra, the queen of beauty, the woman who had captivated the victorious Julius, could not consent to grovel at the triumphal chariot-wheels of Octavius. By her own hand perished the last sovereign of the Lagidæ.

CHAPTER LXXXII.

EGYPT—CONTINUED.

1. With Cleopatra the independence of the Egyptian sovereignty ended, and Egypt became a Roman province, governed by a prætor. Nothing worthy of note occurs, from this time, which is not mentioned in the history of Rome. The inhabitants of Egypt at a very early period carried the arts and sciences to a high degree of perfection, and the monuments of Egyptian grandeur which yet remain, are calculated to give the spectator a high idea of the genius of the ancient inhabitants.

2. Thebes was built on both sides of the Nile, and extended fifty-two miles. Its wealth was prodigious, and some conception of it may be formed from the fact, that after it had been plundered by the Persians, the remains of the pillage were three hundred talents of gold, and two thousand three hundred of silver. The ruins of Thebes occupy a space of thirty-seven miles in circumference, and contain several villages, among which Luxor and Habon are noted.

3. The banks of the Nile are crowded with colossal statues, ranges of gigantic columns, and immense obelisks, bearing a profusion of sculpture. Sphinxes, and porticoes of wonderful size, meet the eye in every direction. Before the magnificent temple of Luxor, rise two obelisks of pink marble, to the height of one hundred feet. There are no remains of the architectural splendors of Memphis, which contained, among other wonders, a noble and beautiful temple, dedicated to the god Apis.

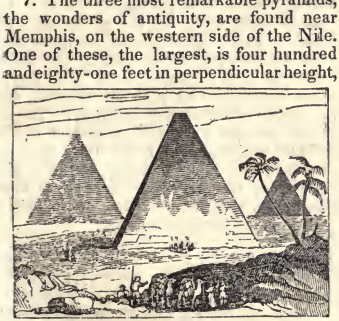
4. Alexandria stood upon the western side of the Delta, and was the chosen city of the Ptolemies, the capital of Lower Egypt. The ancients say that it occupied a space fifteen miles in extent. It was the first commercial city of the ancient world, and distinguished for its school of learning. The Alexandrian library contained a noble collection of manuscripts. These were burnt by orders of the caliph Omar, A. D. 642, and so numerous were the volumes that they are said to have supplied the four thousand baths of the city with fuel for six months.

5. Alexandria is yet glorious in its ruins. Of these, the principal are Pompey's pillar and Cleopatra's needles, the latter two columns fifty-eight and a half feet long, composed each of a single mass of stone

inscribed with hieroglyphics. One of these pillars has fallen. The catacombs are great curiosities. Commencing at the extremity of the old city, they reach along the coast, and compose what was formerly denominated the city of the dead. They are caves excavated in the rock.

6. The Egyptians possessed the art of embalming bodies to perfection. The method consisted in extracting the brains through the nostrils in the first place, afterwards, opening the belly, and removing the viscera. The cavity of the body was then washed with palm wine, and filled with spices: after this it lay in nitre seventy days, and was then cleansed, folded in fine linen, which was incrusted with gum and painted with hieroglyphics, describing the character and rank of the deceased. This method was used only with the rich and noble.

7. The three most remarkable pyramids, the wonders of antiquity, are found near Memphis, on the western side of the Nile. One of these, the largest, is four hundred and eighty-one feet in perpendicular height,



Pyramids.

and the area of its base includes eleven English acres. The repeated measurements of modern travellers agree in respect to the wonderful size of the pyramids. They are known to have been erected for royal sepulchres, it is supposed between one and two thousand years B. C. Three hundred and sixty thousand men, says Pliny, were engaged in the building of the largest pyramid, which required the labor of twenty years.

8. The government of the Egyptians was an absolute hereditary monarchy, but modified by usage, and designed for the promotion of the public good. The Egyptians possessed certain writings by which the time of their monarchs was regularly divided and apportioned to different employments. They could neither bathe, dine, or enjoy the society of their queens except at stated times. Their food was regulated, usually veal or goose, and their allotted quantity of wine quite moderate.

9. The country was divided into nomes or provinces, over each of which presided a governor with authority to transact any affair occurring within his district. The lands were portioned into three shares; the first devoted to the support of the gods and the defrayment of the expenses of religion, the second belonging to the king, the third appropriated to the soldiers. The husbandmen rented these lands of the monarchs, priests and soldiers, at a low rate, and devoted themselves to agriculture, the son succeeding his father in his employment.

10. The deities of the Egyptians were very numerous; but their principal gods were Osiris and Isis, thought to have represented the sun and moon. Their idolatry extended itself to animals, insects, birds, and even vegetables. We are surprised to find a nation of such intelligence bowing down before an onion or adoring a crocodile. The sacred animals were fed at an immense expense, and their funerals required such an outlay that it is said the keeper of the Apis, which died of old age at Memphis, spent thirteen thousand pounds beyond his substance, at the burial.

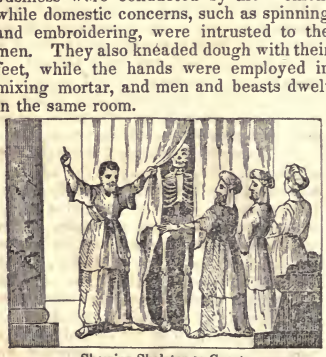
11. Apis was worshipped under the form of an ox. The ox chosen for adoration had many peculiarities. His body was jet black; on his forehead he had a square white spot, on his back an eagle. There was a knot like a beetle under his tongue, the hairs of his tail were double, and on his right side was a whitish crescent. The priests, it is thought, gave the animal these characteristics. When the ox had attained the age prescribed by the sacred books, he was taken into the Nile and drowned, and the greatest lamentations followed until

another ox was found with the proper marks of the deity. We have seen the debasing effect of the superstition of the Egyptians in their conduct before the armies of the invading Cambyses, when the presence of a handful of cats and dogs made the arm of Egyptian valor nerveless.

12. The Egyptians paid very great attention to the education of their children, whose habits were regulated by temperance and frugality. The priest united the task of school-master to his sacerdotal duties, and instructed the youth committed to his care in geometry, arithmetic, and other branches of useful science and literature. The fathers or guardians of the children saw that at an early age they began to study the art or profession of their parents.

13. The beverage of the Egyptians was the water of the Nile, which possessed very nutritious qualities. They were acquainted with the manufacture of a drink from barley, and thus probably originated our beer. In their habits they paid a peculiar regard to cleanliness, which the warmth of the climate rendered indispensable, and we are told that they scoured their drinking vessels daily.

14. With a singular perversion of the customs intimated by nature, trade and business were conducted by the women, while domestic concerns, such as spinning and embroidering, were intrusted to the men. They also kneaded dough with their feet, while the hands were employed in mixing mortar, and men and beasts dwelt in the same room.



Showing Skeleton to Guests.

15. At the entertainments of this people, it was customary to raise a veil covering a skeleton, or, according to some, a wooden image representing a dead man, and to accompany the spectacle with these words of warning: 'Look thou upon this and rejoice; for even like unto this, thou shalt be, when death has overtaken thee.'

16. To Egypt we are indebted for the discovery of geometry, and the extension of learning. Moses, we are informed in the Scriptures, was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians. In medicine, arithmetic, astronomy, they were greatly advanced; and also in the practice of a kind of algebra. They made pretensions to magic, and, judging from the works of art extant, must have been unrivalled among the ancients in architecture, painting, and sculpture.

17. The people of Egypt, at a very early period, engaged in commercial speculations, aware how peculiarly favored by nature they were for the prosecution of trade. In the age of Jacob, we know that the Ishmaelites traded thither, and Solomon did so to a great extent. The Egyptian language was probably original, and certainly of very great antiquity. Traces of it are said to be still preserved in the Coptic tongue, which is but little used or understood. The learning, wealth, and power of the Egyptians, as well as their antiquity, make their relics and history a study of the deepest interest.

CHAPTER LXXXIII.

OTHER COUNTRIES AND TRIBES OF AFRICA.

1. Libya* contained Syreniaca and Marmarica. The Marmaridæ were inhabitants of the latter country, which was between Cyrene and Egypt. They were famous for their swiftness in running, and were believed to possess drugs which were antidotes to the poison of the venomous Libyan

* The name of Libya was given to all Africa by the Greeks; it is properly applied only to the country which lay west of Egypt, east of that part of the country now called Tripoli, and south of the Mediterranean sea.

serpents. In the deserts of Libya, nine days' march from Alexandria, stood the temple of Jupiter, in which he was worshipped under the name of Ammon.

2. The mythological account of the erection of this temple, and the name of Ammon, is as follows: Bacchus, the god of wine, assisted his father Jupiter in his wars with the giants; but in the deserts of Libya they were subjected to all the tortures of thirst, without any visible means of gratifying it. In this distress, Jupiter appeared to Bacchus in the form of a ram, and led him to a fountain. Hence, in gratitude, Bacchus erected a temple to Jupiter under the name of Ammon, i. e. the Sandy.

3. Here was a famous oracle established, according to tradition, by one of two doves, the other flying to Dodona.* This oracle was held in great repute, and consulted by numbers of worshippers. In its neighborhood, according to mythologists, was a fountain whose waters were cold at noon and midnight, but warm in the evening and morning. The temple had one hundred priests; but the oracle lost its fame when it pronounced Alexander the Great, the son of Jupiter.

4. The capital of Cyreniaca was Cyrene, a famous and beautiful city located in a fertile plain eleven miles from the sea. The country of which it was the capital, was called Pentapolis from its five cities. It was built by Battus, 630 years B. C., and bequeathed to the Romans by Ptolemy Appion, 97 B. C. Battus was a Lacedæmonian, and the first king of Cyrene. At his death he received divine honors from the citizens.

5. He was succeeded by a son of the same name, the predecessor of the king surnamed Felix, the Fortunate, who died 554 years B. C. Ptolemais was a famous city of this country, situated on the sea-coast. It was supposed by some to be the same as Barce. This place was founded by Arcesilaus, 515 years B. C.

6. Ethiopia* was a country very little known to the ancients. Homer has styled them the most equitable of men, and the favorites of the gods; but for this character he was probably indebted to his fancy. The ancients called all people Ethiopians whose complexion was black. Herodotus tells us that at the time he travelled in Egypt, it was inhabited by a race of men with black skins and woolly hair. Diodorus says that the Ethiopians were the earliest people of the earth. It is probable that the arts and sciences originated there, which were afterwards cultivated in Egypt.

7. As no kind of description is so minute as that of fiction, so the ancients, wholly ignorant of the interior of Ethiopia, have given all the characteristics of people who never existed, and bestowed upon these strange tribes a local habitation and a name. According to them, the Blemmyes were an Ethiopian people who had no heads, and the mouth and eyes placed in the breast. The Troglodytes were a shepherd race dwelling in caves. The Pigmies, also, a nation of dwarfs, were Ethiopians.

8. Mauritania† was inhabited by the Mauri, so called from their dark complexion (*mauroi.*) The fertility of its soil was noted. Tingis‡ was one of its towns,

* Dodona was a town of Thespratia, in Epirus, or, as some think, in Thessaly. Its celebrated oracle of Jupiter was upon a hill in its vicinity, named Truarus. There was a singular fountain in the vicinity of Dodona, which had the power of lighting any combustible applied to it. The stream became dry at noon, but by midnight its course was full. After that time it gradually decreased, and at the stated hour was dry again.

* The ancients divided this country into East and West. It was situated at the south of Egypt, and reached downward to regions unknown to the ancients. It may be here remarked that they are said to have circumnavigated Africa, sailing from the Red sea and entering the Mediterranean by the pillars of Hercules, now the straits of Gibraltar. The tradition respecting this passage was, that Hercules, by a tremendous effort of strength, produced the union between the Mediterranean and Atlantic, which had previously been parted by the junction of Africa with Europe. Ethiopia probably comprehended the modern countries of Dongola, Sennar, Abyssinia, and part of Adel or Zeila.

† It now forms the modern kingdom of Fez and Morocco. It was bounded north by the Mediterranean, east by Numidia, south by Getulia, and west by the Atlantic. It was sometimes styled Mauritania, and became a Roman province in the time of Claudius.

‡ Tingis is now Tangier, a seaport town.

fabled to have been founded by the giant Antæus. When the place was taken by Sertorius, he caused the tomb of the founder to be opened, and therein found, it is said, a skeleton, twenty cubits long. Antæus was described as so victorious a wrestler, that he offered to erect a temple to his father Neptune, built of the skulls of his vanquished antagonists. He was subdued by Hercules, who, finding that every time he touched the earth, (his mother) his strength was renewed, held him aloft in the air, while he crushed him to death in his embraces.

9. The Getulians inhabited Getulia,* a country which formed part of king Masinissa's kingdom, and near the Garamantes. It was infested with wild beasts. The Garamantes† inhabited the interior part of Africa. They were a singular race, living in common, and from the heat of the climate, regarding dress as inconvenient.

10. The Fortunate Islands,‡ (*insulæ fortunatæ*) were described, by the ancients, as the abodes of the blessed when the cares of life were past. The climate was equable and temperate, the skies ever blue, and the grass ever verdant. Birds of brilliant plumage and sweet song, flew from flower to flower, and the earth spontaneously produced her fruits. In these happy spots the golden age was perpetual. This description, which was given Sertorius when in the western part of Africa, made him long to retire thither from the toils of war and the perplexities of politics, to which he finally fell a victim.

CHAPTER LXXXIV.

CARTHAGE.

1. Carthage§ was founded by Dido, also called Elissa, the daughter of Belus, king of Tyre. She was tenderly beloved and married by Sichæus, or Sicharbas, a priest of Hercules. The riches of Dido's husband excited the envy of her brother Pygmalion, who slew Sichæus, to obtain them. Dido obtained ships from Pygmalion to convey her effects to a small city between Tyre and Sidon, where she proposed living with her brother Barca.

2. He, however, favoring his sister's real design, ordered the fleet to sail for Cyprus, whence they carried off fifty women as wives for the colonists, and then shaped their course for the coast of Africa. Having landed, Dido purchased of the inhabitants a tract of land sufficient to be covered by a bull's hide. The Tyrian lady contrived to make the best of her bargain by cutting the hide into thongs with which she encircled a pretty large space, on which she built a citadel, called *Byrsa* (*bull's hide.*) This was in the midst of Carthage.

3. The exact date of the foundation of Carthage is unknown; it is generally thought to have been built about 869 years B. C. The commerce of the new colonists was soon in a flourishing condition, and the city increased in extent as its population became numerous. The fame of Dido's beauty, and the success of her enterprise, soon spread abroad and procured her many lovers. Jarbas, king of Mauritania, was one of the most forward.

4. His method of making love consisted in a threat of making war, by which he thought to terrify the Carthaginians into compelling their queen to bestow her hand upon him. Dido was under a vow to her late husband never to marry again. She begged to be allowed three months before she gave a final answer to the proposals of her belligerent lover. This time she solemnly occupied in the erection of a funeral pile, on which she sacrificed herself, a voluntary victim to her conjugal fidelity. Dido left her native land probably more than two centuries after the fall of Troy, and consequently the poets have merely availed themselves of the license of their art in making her contemporary with Æneas. It was after and in consequence of her self-sacrifice that the name

* Getulia is now called Biledulgerid.

† The regions inhabited by this race are in the deserts of Zahara.

‡ Supposed to be the Canary isles of the moderns, ten thousand stadia from the coast of Libya.

§ Carthage was situated on the coast of the Mediterranean, about fifteen miles westward of the present Tunis.

of Dido, *valiant woman*, was added to Elissa. After her death, she received divine honors from her subjects.

5. The early history of Carthage is very little known, and by no means well authenticated. From the time of the first Punic war, it becomes a study of interest, the wars of the Romans with the Carthaginians containing some of the most remarkable events recorded in the annals of that people. Carthage was at the summit of its power during the time of Hannibal and Hamilcar. It possessed a population of seven hundred thousand inhabitants, and could boast of three hundred cities within its dominions, on the borders of the Mediterranean sea.

6. The city itself was twenty-three miles in circumference, and when set on fire by the Romans, burned steadily for seventeen days. At one period, Carthage, besides being mistress of Spain and Sicily, could rank Sardinia* among her possessions. They lost it to the Romans 231 years B. C. This place, from its fertility, was valuable, and styled, like Sicily, one of the granaries of Rome.

7. The history of the Punic wars has already been presented with some detail, and a recapitulation seems unnecessary here. The readers of this work are well acquainted with the frivolous nature of the pretext upon which the Romans declared war on the Carthaginians. The Romans accused them of giving assistance to their enemies; but the wealth and growing fame of Carthage excited their cupidity and envy.

8. With such tried and daring warriors as the people of Italy, the fate of the citizens of Carthage was decided from the first. It has been shown that the issue of the several wars was fatal to the Africans. How well they fought in defence of their country, their beloved city, their generals and their institutions, has been told. Their character was deeply tinged with ferocity, and they were, during the Punic wars, like wolves besieged in a den. Feeling themselves the aggressed, they determined to treat such of their assailants as might fall into their power with the utmost rigor, and without discrimination. Thus they sacrificed the noble Regulus.

9. Hamilcar, the father of Hannibal, was a man of consummate bravery, of great skill, and inspired with an inveterate enmity to the Romans. He commanded in Sicily during the first Punic war, at the close of which, peace was obtained by paying Rome three thousand two hundred talents, and surrendering to her the Sicilian possessions of Carthage. After this, Hamilcar returned to Africa, and quelled a formidable rebellion of the slaves, who had taken many towns of Africa, and even laid siege to Carthage. The rebels, finding themselves formidable, solicited and received the assistance of the Romans.

10. After this exploit, Hamilcar passed into Spain with Hannibal, his son, then only nine years old. Barcelona was founded by Hamilcar. Barca was the name of the family from which Hamilcar sprang; they attained great power at Carthage, and finally appropriated all public offices, and raised a party known by the name of the Barcinian faction. Hamilcar was killed in a battle against the Vettones, 237 years B. C.

11. This general formed the plan of entering Italy by the Alps, which his son afterwards carried into execution. Hannibal, as has been before stated, gratified his father by taking an oath, when a child, to pursue the Romans with flame and steel, while he continued to breathe. This promise made in childhood, his maturer age did not seek to disavow. An hereditary hatred inflamed his mind, and he resolved not to belie the boast of his father, who often exclaimed, alluding to his sons,

* Sardinia was south of Corsica, and west of Italy, from which it was separated by the Tuscan or Tyrrhene sea. It is next to Sicily in size. It was formerly called Sandaliotis or Ichnusa, from its resembling the print of a sandal, or a man's foot. It was settled by a Libyan colony under Sardus, and colonies under Aristæus, Norax, and Solas also came thither. The air was very unwholesome, but the soil produced corn, grapes and olives. Neither wolves nor poisonous serpents were found in the island, and only one poisonous plant, an herb which, eaten, produced death, preceded by a paroxysm of laughter, termed *Sardonic laughter*.

that he held three lions in the leash, who would spring, at a fit opportunity, upon the Roman power, and devour it.

12. On the death of his father, Hannibal was appointed to command the cavalry in Spain, and, upon the death of Asdrubal, son-in-law to Hamilcar, all the forces of the Carthaginians. Hannibal was then but twenty-five years of age. His predecessor, Asdrubal, was a man of distinguished abilities. He laid the foundation of New Carthage* in Spain, and was extending his progress to the east, when it was stipulated in a treaty between the Romans and Carthaginians, that Asdrubal should not cross the river Iberus,† and the Carthaginian general faithfully obeyed the injunction.

13. Asdrubal was killed by a slave whose master he had murdered, encircled by his troops, B. C. 220. The slave, when taken, was subjected to the severest tortures, which he bore with fortitude, and even derided. His military reputation was eclipsed by that of his successor in command. Hannibal effected his passage through the Alps by softening the rocks with vinegar, by which process he formed a path over, and down which even his heavily-armed elephants trod fearless and secure.

14. If, after his victory at Cannæ, Hannibal had marched directly to the capital, its subsequent conquest by Alaric would have been made over Carthaginian defenders. The delay of the hostile commander gave the Romans confidence and spirit, and when Hannibal approached the walls of Rome, he was told that the spot of land on which his army stood was selling for a high price in the Forum. At Capua, his troops were vanquished by luxury, the most formidable enemy to warriors, since it is one against which they rarely contend.

15. The failure of Hannibal's ambitious schemes are certainly attributable to the parsimonious policy of the Carthaginian government, who refused to supply him with reinforcements to carry on the war with vigor, while the Romans, on the other hand, raised eighteen legions to oppose him. Hannibal was well aware of the important advantages accruing from speedy succor from his countrymen, for when made aware of the defeat and death of Asdrubal, who came to the assistance of his brother, but was opposed by the intervening troops of the consuls, he exclaimed, 'In losing Asdrubal, I lose all my joys, and my country all her hopes.'

16. After his fidelity to his country, and the sorrow with which his ultimate defeat at Zama must have overwhelmed him, we are grieved to see this steady defender of his country hunted from spot to spot in his old age, and finally compelled by the vigilance of his pursuers to commit suicide or fall into the hands of the Romans. In reading his history for the first time, we feel aware, before arriving at the final catastrophe, that he will never consent to fall into the chains of his hated enemies, the Romans; we are fully prepared for his pursuing the custom of the ancients in such cases, and dying by poison administered with his own hand. The court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, was the scene of death, and the last words of the Carthaginian were, 'It is time to free the Romans from their terror, by the death of an old man.'

17. After the destruction of Carthage, B. C. 147, Utica became the seat of power, and the Romans, thinking themselves secure in their African possessions, grew indolent and inactive. Cæsar established a small colony on the ruins of Carthage, Augustus augmented the population by sending three thousand men thither, and Adrian rebuilt a portion of it, to which he gave the name of Adrianapolis. After the Roman empire fell, Carthage, as well as other Roman provinces, was seized by the Vandals, in whose hands it remained until the Saracens conquered it in the seventh century.

18. The government of Carthage was republican; every year, two magistrates were chosen, invested with regal authority. The Carthaginians are characterized as

* Nova Carthago, on the borders of the Mediterranean, now Carthagena, a large city, with an excellent port, formed by nature in the shape of a heart.

† Now the Ebro, falling into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.

superstitious, cruel, and faithless to their engagements with allies; but the same honor which is said to prevail with banditti was found among themselves. In the worship of the gods, they immolated human victims on their altars, a practice which their allies could not persuade them to abolish.

19. Their character as soldiers stood high, and their naval superiority was long acknowledged. Yet, in defiance of the fame of the Carthaginian war-galleys, we find the Romans, in a fleet of ships constructed on the model of a single stranded vessel, victorious in their first sea-fight. But this was before the wealth of conquered provinces had completely enervated the inhabitants of Italy. Carthage sank beneath the arms of Rome, never to rise from her ashes, and without any remaining vestige of glory to prove her former state.

CHAPTER LXXXV.

NUMIDIA.

1. Numidia* was near Carthage, and a country of some note. Masinissa, a king of Numidia, who at first assisted the Carthaginians, was made the friend of the Romans by Scipio, the first Africanus, who, among the prisoners made at the defeat of Asdrubal, found a nephew of Masinissa, whom he sent to his uncle, loaded with presents, and accompanied by a strong escort.

2. To the agency of Masinissa the Romans owed many of their victories in Africa, and particularly that in which Asdrubal and Syphax were defeated. The Numidian victor was captivated by the extreme loveliness of Sophonisba, the wife of Syphax, and married her. Although he loved her tenderly, on finding that his connection gave offence to his Roman friend Scipio, he sent poison to his wife, desiring her to make use of it, since, without offending his allies, he could not maintain her with the dignity and splendor which her rank required. She killed herself in consequence.

3. Masinissa was rewarded for his courage, activity and fidelity to the Romans, by being presented with the kingdom over which Syphax reigned previous to his defeat. This kingdom was called Massyla.* The inhabitants were fierce and warlike, using no saddles and bridles, without which they were excellent horsemen.

The Soldiers of Masinissa mounted on Horses.

Their manners were very simple, but their love of liberty innate and invincible. Mounted on their fiery steeds, they recognised no foreign master, and they feared no enemy.

4. The wife of Syphax was the daughter of Asdrubal, and hence his son-in-law forsook the Romans and fought on the side of their opponents. After his defeat, he was carried in triumph to Rome, where he died in prison, 201 years B. C. Masinissa, from the commencement of his friendship with the Romans, enjoyed honor and good fortune. His good health was remarkable. In his old age he would head his armies, and remain for days on horseback without a saddle beneath him, or a cap or helmet to protect his reverend head. His temperance produced this enviable state of body. After his most brilliant victory over the Carthaginians, he was seen at the door of his tent devouring brown bread with a relish, like a common soldier.

* It now forms Algiers and Bildulgerid. It was bounded on the west by Mauritania, east by Africa Propria, north by the Mediterranean, and south by Getulia.

* An inland country of Mauritania, near mount Atlas. The inhabitants were called Massyli, and also Masæsylii.

5. At his death, which took place in his ninety-seventh year, 149 years B. C., at the end of a reign of more than sixty years' duration, he showed his friendship for the Romans, and his confidence in Scipio Æmilianus, by intrusting that general with the care of regulating his kingdom, and dividing it among his three sons, Micipsa, Gulussa, and Mastanabal. Besides these three legitimate, Masinissa left fifty-one natural children, who were reminded of their parentage by valuable presents bequeathed by their father.

6. Gulussa and Mastanabal shortly after died, leaving Micipsa sole possessor of the throne. At his death, 119 B. C., he left his kingdom to Adherbal and Hiempsal, his sons, and Jugurtha, his nephew, whom he had ever treated with kindness, and loaded with benefits. Jugurtha proved ungrateful for the favors of his uncle, murdering Hiempsal, and depriving Adherbal of his share in the kingdom. The latter fled to Rome to seek protection of its citizens, and to denounce Jugurtha.

7. Jugurtha, as our readers have been told in the history of Rome, bribed the senate, who pronounced him guiltless of the murder, and adjudged half the kingdom to Adherbal. This young man was slain by Jugurtha, which last criminal act brought upon the perpetrator the vengeance of the Romans, and the captive Jugurtha was starved to death in their dungeons.

8. Juba, the first of that name, who favored the cause of Pompey against Julius Cæsar, was a very noted king of Numidia and Mauritania. After the battle of Pharsalia, he united his forces with those of Scipio, and after his defeat, killed himself. Sallust, the historian of the Jugurthine war, was the first governor of Numidia, when it became a Roman province on the defeat and death of Juba.

9. The son of Juba, bearing the name of his father, became noted for his talents and application to study. He was brought to Rome to grace the triumph of Cæsar, and won the hearts of the citizens by his courtesy and mildness. Augustus was pleased with him, and bestowed upon him the hand of Cleopatra, the daughter of Antony. His popularity was great; its extent may be judged from the fact that the Mauritanians and Ethiopians worshipped him as a deity, while the Athenians erected a statue in his honor. A few fragments of his history of Rome, which was written in Greek and extolled by the ancients, yet remain. His history of Arabia, and account of Assyrian antiquities, his treatises upon Roman antiquities, the fine arts, natural history, and grammar, are lost, and much to be regretted. His mild character, his great learning and industry, and his brilliant talents, gained him more honor than he could have obtained by the possession of a kingdom, like his father. Numidia fell into the hands of the Vandals after they had conquered Italy.

CHAPTER LXXXVI.

ASSYRIA.

1. In Asia, the first inhabitants of the earth appeared. All accounts of the formation of the world which differ from that given in the Holy Scriptures, are palpably absurd and unworthy of credit. About five thousand eight hundred and thirty-two years ago, God created the world during the space of six days. The seventh day was hallowed by his resting after the creation. Adam and Eve, formed by God, and designed to be the parents of the human race, were placed in the fertile garden of Eden, from which they were expelled in consequence of having disobeyed the injunction of the Lord, by partaking of the fruit of the tree of knowledge.

2. For this crime they were driven from Paradise, and the gift of immortality withdrawn from them and their descendants. In a portion of this work particularly devoted to sacred history, we shall give an account of their descendants, but will here remark that the crimes and wickedness of the human race brought upon them an exterminating deluge, 2348 years B. C., from which Noah and his family alone were saved by means of an ark constructed according to the directions of God.

3. The three sons of Noah were the first founders of nations. Shem peopled the east and south of Asia; Ham, Syria, Arabia, and Africa; Japhet, the north and west of Asia and Europe. The Elamites, Persians, Assyrians, and Lydians were derived from the immediate descendants of Shem. From the sons of Ham, the Ethiopians, the Babylonians, the Egyptians, the Colchians, the Libyans, the Canaanites, the Sidonians, and the Phœnicians, were descended. From the sons of Japhet sprang the Cimbri, the Gauls, the Germans, the Scythians, the Tartars, the Medes, the Ionians, the Muscovites, and the Thracians.

4. Until the year 2247 B. C., the human race had but one language, when, having arrived from mount Ararat in a large plain in the land of Shinar, they began to found a city, and built a tower the summit of which should reach towards the heavens. They hoped by this to perpetuate their name, and prevent the separation of their households.

5. The Deity, offended at their purpose, or perhaps at worse intentions which are unknown, confounded their language, so that the workmen could not understand each other, and hence mankind separated into different communities. Assyria,* which afterwards included Babylonia, was founded on the site of the city in which the confusion of tongues occurred, and which was called Babel, a word which means disorder.

6. The date of the beginning of this empire may be fixed at 2229 years B. C. It was founded by Ashur, the son of Shem, who built Nineveh,† the capital. It continued separated from Babylonia about one hundred and twenty years, and when the kingdoms were united, they formed a mighty empire. The first empire of the Assyrians (for there were two) lasted till the year 767 B. C. Many imagine that Babylon, built by Nimrod, the grandson of Ham, the Belus of profane history, was the capital of Assyria in the commencement; but those writers seem to give the most plausible account who suppose Babylonia and Assyria distinct kingdoms, founded very nearly at the same time, the former by Nimrod, and the latter by Ashur.

7. Babylonia finally became tributary to Assyria, and Ninus, sovereign of the latter kingdom, having dethroned Nabonius, formed a junction between the kingdoms. When Semiramis became his widow, she transferred the capital from Nineveh to Babylon, which she employed her mind in devising means to embellish and strengthen. She employed in this work the labors of two million men. It is said to have had one hundred brazen gates; the walls were cemented with bitumen, as mortar was not then used. They were fifty cubits in thickness, and two hundred in height.*

8. This warlike queen conquered a large portion of Ethiopia, and even invaded India, but without success. Her habits were essentially military. Being informed one day while at her toilette, dressing her hair, that Babylon had revolted, although but half adorned, she hastened to oppose the insurrection, nor would she permit her hair to be arranged until the sedition was quelled. Finding that her son Ninias coveted the throne, she abdicated in his favor, having reigned forty-two years. She was murdered, it is supposed, at the instigation of her son, in the sixty-second year of her age.

9. Semiramis was brave and beautiful. Her loveliness and heroism first gained the affections of the Assyrian king, who offered Menones, her husband, his own daughter in the place of Semiramis. Menones, however, tenderly loved his wife, and, overwhelmed with grief at the prospect of losing her, committed suicide. The Assyrian queen was wounded twice in her last battle with the Indians, before she con-

* Assyria, although sometimes distinguished from Syria, generally bore both names. The Syrians were called Assyrians, and the Assyrians Syrians. The boundaries of the empire varied greatly. Generally speaking, the name of Assyria is applied to all that territory which lies between Media, Mesopotamia, Armenia and Babylon. Semiramis extended the boundaries as far as Ethiopia and Libya.

† Now *Nino*, called by the heathen, Ninus, and situated on the banks of the Tigris.

* The final desolation of Babylon was so complete, that Pliny describes it as being, even in his time, a desolate wilderness.

sented to retreat; but although possessing undaunted courage, she appears to have had none of the syren graces and virtues which adorn a woman.

10. Ninias, her son and successor, was indolent and effeminate, and as deficient in manly virtues as his mother was in feminine qualities. He transmitted to his successors his own foibles and vices, and in consequence the Assyrian kings, for a space of thirty years, have left no record of their useless reigns. During this period, in which even the names of the monarchs are the subject of dispute, Sesostris, the Egyptian king, among other conquests, overran Assyria; but the inhabitants soon returned to their former independence.

11. Pul, supposed to be the father of Sardanapalus, and mentioned in Scripture, is the first king of Assyria of whom we can glean any particulars after a chasm of eight hundred years. He is supposed to be the king of Nineveh who repented at the preaching of Jonah; and if this supposition be correct, the age at which he flourished was about 800 years B. C. Jonah was commanded by God to denounce his judgments against the Ninevites for their great wickedness. They humbled themselves before the wrath of the Almighty, and in consequence the Divine vengeance was averted for a while.

CHAPTER LXXXVII.

ASSYRIA—CONTINUED.

1. Sardanapalus, the fortieth and last of the Assyrian monarchs, was more vicious than any of his predecessors. He was infamous for his luxury and voluptuousness. The greater part of his time was passed in the company of his eunuchs and women, among whom he appeared in female attire, spinning wool for amusement. His greatest excitement consisted in drinking, and revelry and indolence were his sole delights.

2. This conduct excited the indignation of his subjects, and particularly exasperated Belesis and Arsaces, his officers, who formed a conspiracy which resulted in the destruction of the kingdom, 767 years B. C. Sardanapalus, at the crisis to which this rebellion brought him, summoned energy enough to head the troops which still remained faithful to him, and defeated the rebels in three successive battles. He was finally forced to retire into Nineveh, in which place he was besieged two years by Arbaces, governor of the Medes.

3. Finding his situation desperate, Sardanapalus shut himself up with his women in his palace, which contained all his treasures. Then setting fire to the pile, it was in a very short time consumed. Long after the flames had wrapped the whole

Death of Sardanapalus.

building, the shrieks of the women continued to be heard, and through the swaying wreaths of fire their forms might be seen, flitting to and fro. All perished, and the palace was consumed to the earth. Three monarchies arose from the ruins of the kingdom—Nineveh, which retained the name of Assyria, Babylon, and the kingdom of the Medes.

4. The first king of Nineveh, after the division of Assyria, is supposed to have been Tiglath Pileser, 747 years B. C. Shalmanezer, one of his successors, conquered the kingdom of Israel, 721 years B. C., during the reign of Hoshea, when the Israelites, except a few who remained in Canaan, were dispersed among the Assyrians and lost their distinctive character.

5. Sennacherib, another king of Nineveh, sent an epistle to Hezekiah, full of

impiety and blasphemy against the God of Israel. In consequence of this, when just ready to take the city of Jerusalem, the angel of the Lord descended in the midst of his host, and in the course of a single night smote one hundred and eighty-five thousand of his men. On returning to his country, his two eldest sons killed him in the temple of Nisroch.

6. Nebuchadnezzar's reign commenced about one hundred and eight years after that of Sennacherib. It was rendered famous by many conquests, especially of Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. The heart of Nebuchadnezzar was filled with pride, and the Lord, to chastise him for his insolence, afflicted him with a dreadful kind of insanity, which compelled him to wander in the forests subsisting upon grass, like a wild beast. His recovery took place about twelve months before his death, when he published a solemn edict, declaring the wonders which God had wrought within him.

7. Labynit, king of Nineveh, was the Belshazzar of Scripture, and put to profane uses the sacred vessels which had been taken from the temple at Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, before he razed it to the ground. He was besieged by Cyaxares, king of the Medes, and Cyrus, the Persian king. During the siege, he gave a sumptuous entertainment, at which the whole court appeared. It was then that there broke forth upon the wall that awful hand and those characters of light to which the prophet Daniel gave an explanation. The Jewish captive told him that his kingdom was taken and given to the Medes and Persians. That night Babylon was taken, that night Belshazzar sank to rise no more. This event took place 588 years B. C.

8. Babylon continued separate from Assyria not quite seventy years, at the expiration of which time it was annexed to his dominions by Esarhaddon, one of the kings of Nineveh, 680 years B. C. Of its history during this brief period, little is known. Nabonassar was the first king, and from his reign began the famous astronomical epocha at Babylon. Merodach, one of the successors of Nabonassar, appears to have been the same king who sent ambassadors to Hezekiah to congratulate him on the recovery of his health.

9. The kingdom of the Medes is the third in rank of the kingdoms forming what is called the second Assyrian empire. The Medes are reputed to be the descendants of Madai, the third son of Japhet, from whom their country took the name of Media.* They were distinct and independent tribes until the election of Dejoces, 690 years B. C., united them under one government.

10. The Roman authors say that Media was a name given to the country by Medus, the son of Medea, before whose time it was called Ario. Dejoces made the beautiful city of Ecbatana, which he built, the capital of his dominions. He is said to have surrounded it with seven walls, within which stood the royal palace. He made many excellent laws, but was defeated in a war with Nebuchadnezzar the First, who plundered the city, stripped it of its ornaments, and having made captive the king, ordered him to be shot to death with arrows.

11. His successor was Phraortes, who was the fortunate conqueror of almost the whole of Upper Asia. Cyaxares, or Cyaraxes I., was brave and enterprising. He defeated the Ninevites or Assyrians in the first engagement of a war against them, by which he undertook to avenge the injuries his country had suffered from Nebuchadnezzar. He was forced to return to his kingdom by an irruption of the Scythians. Cyaxares marched against them with his whole army; but the Medes were defeated and compelled to enter into a treaty with the barbarians, who settled in Media and remained there twenty-eight years.

12. They were got rid of by stratagem. Being invited to a general entertainment given in every family, every landlord, having intoxicated his guest, easily mastered him, and put him to death with his dagger. After the extermination of the Scythians, Cyaxares made war with the Lydians, and

* Bounded on the north by the Caspian sea, west by Armenia, south by Persia, east by Parthia, and north by Hyrcania.

hostilities lasted for five years. During the last year of the war, a battle was fought which was rendered remarkable by a total eclipse of the sun, which had been predicted by Thales the philosopher. This event, considered so ominous in that age, caused both Lydians and Medes to retreat in terror, and a peace was soon after concluded. Astyages and Cyaxares II. were the two succeeding princes. The former married his daughter to Cambyses, king of Persia, who became, by her, the father of Cyrus. After the death of Cyaxares, Media and Persia were united.

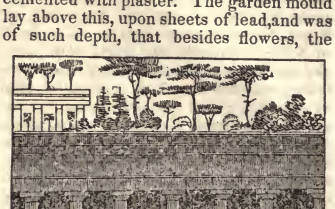
13. Assyria now forms the country of Curdistan. Nineveh was fifteen miles in length, nine in breadth, and forty-seven in circumference. On the top of its walls, which were an hundred feet in height, three chariots could drive abreast. They were defended by towers, fifteen hundred in number, two hundred feet in height. Its location is supposed to have been on the spot now called Nino, on the Tigris, opposite Mosul.

14. Babylonia was principally made up of Mesopotamia, the modern Diarbec. Through the centre of the capital flowed the Euphrates from north to south. Babylon stood on an extensive plain. Its walls encompassed an exact square. They were sixty miles in circumference, eighty-seven feet in thickness, and three hundred and fifty feet in height.

15. On each side of this great square were twenty-five gates, composed of solid brass, between each of which rose three stately towers. At each corner there were four more towers, and three more between the towers on the corners and the gates on either side of them. From the twenty-five gates ran the same number of streets intersecting each other at right angles, each street being about one hundred and fifty feet wide. There were four more half-streets next the walls, running round the city about two hundred feet in width.

16. The city, thus divided into squares, contained an immense number of noble edifices, three and four stories high, surrounded by areas filled with pleasure-gardens. The hanging gardens were formed of a number of large terraces one above another, the ascent from the highest to the lowest being by stairs ten feet in width. The whole was sustained by arches of immense solidity, strengthened by a massy wall.

17. In forming these gardens, huge flat stones were first laid upon the arches, over which was placed a layer of reeds cemented with bitumen, which formed a bed for the reception of two tiers of bricks cemented with plaster. The garden mould lay above this, upon sheets of lead, and was of such depth, that besides flowers, the



Hanging Gardens.

largest trees could take root in it. These gardens, in their perfection, were the most picturesque and naturally brilliant objects in the world.

18. Assyria and Babylonia were both under a despotic government. The kings were absolute and hereditary, and each edict issued from the lips of the sovereign. The monarch even dared to claim the honors due to divinity alone. Deeming their persons too sacred to be profaned by vulgar eyes, the Eastern conquerors lived in the most studied retirement, and bore down beneath their thrall nations whose languages and manners differed, and who had never seen the master they obeyed. The eastern kings administered the government by various military and civil officers.

19. One class of officers had charge of the virgins, and transacted all business relative to the married state; another judged on cases of theft, and a third took

cognizance of all other crimes. The laws were vague and unsettled, with the exception of one which compelled all classes, even the poorest, to marry. Parents had no authority to dispose of their daughters in marriage; but the young women were put up at auction, and the price obtained by the beautiful assigned as a marriage portion to the deformed.

20. Punishments were arbitrary; but the most usual were decapitation, dismemberment, turning the criminal's house into a dunghill, and consuming him in a fiery furnace. With regard to literature and religion, the Chaldeans took charge of both. They pretended to the gift of divination, dealing in the interpretation of dreams, in incantations, amulets, and extraordinary appearances of nature. Recognising in the stars inferior ministers of a supreme power, they erected temples and worshipped them, hoping thus to obtain the good will of the deity.

21. They soon became worshippers of earthly objects, thinking them the representatives of the stars or of the divinity through them. It was in this manner that idolatry spread through the nations of the globe, originating with the people of the plains of Shinar, who were afterwards dispersed at Babel. This derivation of image worship is proved by the fact that the principal heathen gods are those of the sun, moon, and the five primary planets, Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, Mercury, and Venus.

22. Belus was worshipped as a deity. His temple at Babylon was formed of a square, each side of which was a furlong in extent; it had eight towers rising above each other, gradually decreasing to the summit, and its height was one furlong. According to the accounts given by ancient Roman writers, its riches were immense. It contained many statues of massy gold, one of which was forty feet high. It was ruined and plundered by Xerxes, after the failure of his Grecian expedition.

23. The Babylonians practised and extended the frightful custom of immolating human victims to their deities. It is to them that we must trace the inhuman sacrifices of other nations. Traces of their ancient cruelty are found in the sacrifices to the Assyrian goddess at Hierapolis, on the Euphrates, in the temple of which parents without any compunction threw their children down a precipice in the temple.

24. Among their most singular customs was the festival called Sacca. This lasted five days, and during its celebration the servants were invested with authority, and ruled over their masters, who were compelled to obey their commands. One of them was made chief of the household, and clad in a splendid regal garment called Togana. There were some customs among this sensual people which cannot be mentioned without offending propriety.

25. Although the Chaldeans cultivated astronomy, they perverted their natural advantages and retarded the progress of science, from connecting with it certain influences over the affairs of earth, and pretending that the appearances and motions of the heavenly bodies foretold events, and developed a meaning which they understood. Their learning was orally acquired, being transmitted from father to son. They received with explicit belief whatever principles were transmitted to them, and never attempted to improve them. Hence they made no scientific advances.

26. The Babylonians devoted themselves with great assiduity to the useful arts. Their prodigious architectural works prove their thorough acquaintance with mechanics and mathematics. In painting and statuary they attained no eminent rank, and medicine was almost totally neglected. Their custom in case of disease, was to expose the sick in the streets where they were attended by any passenger who thought fit to prescribe for them, or where they perished miserably when no one was able or willing to assist them.

27. In casting metals, the skill of the Babylonians was great; and in the manufacture of rich carpets, fine linen, and embroidery, they were unrivalled. As a proof of the splendor of their dresses, we are informed that Cato sold a Babylonian mantle which he had inherited, because he was

ashamed to wear it; and that more than six thousand pounds had been given for a set of hangings made at Babylon.* We may thence form some estimate of the luxuries of that wealthy but abandoned people.

CHAPTER LXXXVIII.

LYDIA.

1. The history of Lydia is involved in great obscurity. Their kings were divided into three dynasties. 1. The Atydæ; 2. the Heraclidæ; 3. the Mermnadæ. The history of the Atydæ is fabulous throughout. Argon was the first, and Candaules the last king of the Heraclidæ. The former reigned about 1223 years B. C.

2. Lud, the son of Shem, is supposed to have been the founder of the kingdom. It was also called Lydia from one of its kings, Lydus. Before this, Mæon, one of the monarchs, gave the name of Mæonia to the country. At first, that part of Mæonia alone which lay on the Ægean sea was called Lydia Proper,* but the arrival of the Greeks and Ionians forced the inhabitants to retreat further into the interior.

3. The invaders gave the country where they settled the name of Ionia, from the country whence they had been expelled by the Heraclidæ, while the Lydians gave their name to the new tracts which they settled. Before the settlement of the Ionians, the Lydians were a commercial people. They were the first who exhibited public sports, and the first specimens of gold and silver coinage came from them.

4. Candaules was the last of the Heraclidæ who reigned in Lydia. He succeeded his father, 735 years B. C. He exposed his queen before Gyges, which so incensed her that she induced Gyges to murder her husband; which he did, and afterwards married her, and ascended the throne about 718 years B. C.

5. Sadyates, one of the Mermnadæ, reigned in Lydia twelve years after his father Gyges. He carried on a war with the Milesians for the space of six years. Alyattes II., king of Lydia, belonged to the warlike family of the Mermnadæ, and was the father of Crœsus. He expelled the Cimmerians from Asia, and warred with the Medes. He was the leader of the Lydians in that battle which was terminated by the eclipse. He died after a reign of thirty-five years.

6. Crœsus began to reign 562 years B. C. He was the patron of learning, and was thought to be the richest of mankind. He was the first king of Lydia who compelled the Asiatic Greeks to become tributary to his subjects. Æsop, the celebrated writer of fables, was warmly patronized by Crœsus, who was well disposed to all men of talent and learning, and gave them personal countenance and encouragement.

7. In the course of an interview with Solon, Crœsus wished to pass for the happiest of mankind; but the philosopher told him that poverty and domestic virtue alone procured unalloyed bliss. The Lydian king, when, his capital having been taken by Cyrus, he was conducted to the pile to be burnt by order of the conqueror, exclaimed in a piercing and energetic tone of voice, 'Solon! Solon! Solon!' Cyrus, on being informed that Crœsus pronounced the name of the philosopher because he recollected his remark, 'that no man could be esteemed happy till the end of his life,' recalled the order he had given, and ever after treated Crœsus with honor and respect, although his kingdom was retained by the conqueror, and formed part of Persia.

CHAPTER LXXXIX.

PERSIA.

1. Persia,* from the time of Cyrus the Great, 536 years B. C., holds a conspicuous

* The boundaries of Lydia were different at different periods. It was originally bounded by Mysia Major, Caria, Phrygia Major, and Ionia: but in its most flourishing state, comprehended the whole country between the Halys and the Ægean sea.

* As a province, Ptolemy describes Persia as bounded on the north by Media, west by Lusiana,

place in ancient history. Persia, at first, was of very limited extent, but afterwards included the whole of India, Assyria, Media, and Persia, and the districts in the vicinity of the Euxine and Caspian seas. The first inhabitants of Persia were named Elamites from being the descendants of Elam, the eldest son of Shem. For sixteen centuries, very little is known concerning Elam. The first king we find upon record, Chederlaomer, conquered the king of Sodom, but was completely defeated by Abraham. This is mentioned in the Bible.

2. Cyrus was born one year after his uncle Cyaxares. He was educated in the frugal, plain, and healthy manner which distinguished the Persians in those days. He was taught to care little for fine clothes and food, and no distinction was made between him and the children with whom he was brought up. It was not long, however, before he displayed qualities which fitted him to fill the high station for which he was born. He not only showed his intellectual superiority over his companions, but he excelled them all in courage and dexterity.

3. When a boy, his mother took him to pay a visit to his grandfather Astyages. The luxury of the Median court disgusted as much as it surprised young Cyrus. His grandfather, who was highly delighted with the modesty and artlessness of the young prince, loaded him with rich presents, which, however, he gave away to the courtiers, according to their merits, or the services they had rendered him.

4. Astyages expressed his surprise that Cyrus should always have neglected his cup-bearer Sacas, an admirable officer whom the king favored. 'Oh!' exclaimed Cyrus, 'is it so difficult a task to be a cup-bearer? I can perform the office equally as well as Sacas.' So saying, with great grace and respect he handed the cup to his mother. 'He has done well,' said Astyages, who admired the skill of his grandson, 'and yet our Ganymede has forgotten one thing—to taste the wine before he gave it us.' 'I had no mind to swallow poison,' said the youthful prince. 'Poison!' exclaimed Astyages. 'Ay,' returned young Cyrus, 'for they who drink, often grow giddy and sick, and fall.' 'Do you not drink then in your own country?' inquired Astyages. 'Assuredly; but only to satisfy thirst, and then a little water serves our purpose.'

5. Cyrus subjected to his victorious arms all the nations from the Ægean sea to the Euphrates, and as we have seen, conquered Babylon. He entered the city by an ingenious stratagem. Having caused deep ditches and canals to be excavated on both sides of the stream, when the Babylonians were engaged in a night revel, he caused the dams to be broken down, and the Euphrates poured into a thousand new channels, leaving dry its bed, into which Cyrus and his army marched, and thus obtained footing in the city.

6. In two years after this, Cyrus ruled alone over his country for the space of seven years, during which he issued his celebrated decree inviting the Jews to return. Cyrus lost his life in consequence of a battle which he fought against the Scythians under the command of their queen Tomyris. Being defeated and taken, Cyrus was beheaded by order of the queen, who was incensed at the death of her son in the battle, and who threw the head into a vessel brimming with human blood, exclaiming, 'Take your fill of the blood for which you thirsted!' This event took place 529 B. C.

7. The stratagem by which Cambyses conquered the Egyptians has been twice noticed. He must himself have regarded cats and dogs, by which he gained Pelusium, with peculiar respect and favor for the rest of his life. Cambyses was exasperated at the improper ceremonies with which the Apis was worshipped, and stabbing the ox in the thigh, gave his soldiers permission to kill all whom they found celebrating such disorderly festivals. The Egyptians remarked with much satisfaction that Cambyses died of a wound in the same place as that where he had wounded their

south by the Persian gulf, and east by Carmania. In its ancient state, it reached from the Hellespont to the Indus, more than two thousand eight hundred miles, and from Pontus to the shores of Arabia, two thousand miles.

god. In mounting his horse, he tore his thigh with his sword, and died of the ensuing mortification.

8. Cambyses was severe and cruel. He flayed a certain partial judge, and nailed his skin to the bench of judgment, appointing his son to succeed him, and telling him to remember where he sat. He put his brother Smerdis to death, but so privately that the execution was known only to one of the Magi, who on the death of Cambyses usurped the throne in the name of Smerdis whom he resembled, but betrayed his own secret, and was put to death by a conspiracy of seven noblemen, after a reign of six months. The conspirators chose Darius, a descendant of Cyrus, by the mother's side, king.

9. The story relative to the election is this: The conspirators agreed that he among them whose horse neighed first, should be saluted king. The groom of Darius, the night preceding the trial, took his master's horse to a certain spot where he forced him to neigh. On the morrow at sunrise, as the conspirators passed the place, the horse, recollecting it, neighed loudly, and Darius was in consequence chosen to ascend the throne. Darius gave permission to the Jews to rebuild their temple. He made war against the Scythians, and afterwards the Greeks.

10. His enmity to the latter was great. He employed a servant to keep alive his resentment by exclaiming every morning, 'Forget not, O king, to punish the Athenians.' The ill success of his arms did not prevent him from raising fresh levies, and planning new expeditions. He relied upon the numbers of men which he could pour forth, and the splendor and perfection of their arms and equipments. Even after the battle of Marathon, he was preparing to pour new armies into Greece.

11. Xerxes was the second son of Darius. He was appointed his successor because the first son was born before his father's elevation to the Persian throne. Xerxes had little to boast of in his Grecian expedition. The bravery of the Spartans, their valiant and long-sustained resistance, made the victory over them a dear purchase to the immense army of the Persians.

12. The defeat of the three hundred thousand Persians at Platea, by a third of their number, the ruinous loss of Xerxes at Mycale, 479 B. C., overwhelmed the king with shame and disappointment. Retiring to his capital, he indulged himself in incessant revelry and voluptuousness, disgusting, by his utter abandonment of all principle, even the most luxurious of his subjects. Artabanus, captain of his guardsmen, conspired against him, and assassinated him while in bed. Herodotus tells us that in the whole army there was no man so worthy to command, so stately in form, so beautiful in feature. Justin tells us that the invading army of Persians was without a head. Xerxes possessed some natural feeling, as his weeping at the thought of the inevitable destruction of his army proved. When he was in a boat once, and in danger of sinking, his attendants strove which should first leap overboard and save their monarch's life, by lightening the bark.

CHAPTER XC.

PERSIA—CONTINUED.

1. The defeat of the Persians under Megabyzes, 460 years B. C., by the Greeks under Cimon, enabled the latter to force Artaxerxes, who had succeeded Xerxes, his father, on the Persian throne, to beg for peace on the most favorable terms for the victors. Artaxerxes I. killed his brother Darius, being told by Artabanus that he was the murderer of his father. When the truth was discovered, the king ordered Artabanus and all his family to be put to death.

2. During the reign of Artaxerxes I. the Egyptians in vain endeavored to shake off the Persian yoke. Xerxes II., after reigning for only forty-five days, was basely murdered by his brother Sogdianus, and he in turn wielded the sceptre but six months, at the end of which time he was put to death by being smothered in hot ashes,

which afterwards became the customary mode of punishing great criminals. The execution of Sogdianus was ordered by his brother Ochus, who ascended the throne, having assumed the name of Darius Nothus, a weak prince, possessed of no abilities, during whose reign the Egyptians regained their independence.

3. Xenophon has ably described the retreat of the ten thousand Greeks from Babylon to the banks of the Euxine. This has been described. The Greeks had come to the assistance of Cyrus, a younger brother of Artaxerxes Mnemon, who, in an attempt to dethrone the latter, lost his life in the battle near Babylon.

4. Ochus succeeded Mnemon, poisoned his brother, and murdered all the princes of the royal family. The number of relations whom he put to death is said to have amounted to eighty. He reconquered Egypt, and, by his cruelty to the vanquished, so irritated his subjects, that the deed of his chief minister, who poisoned him, was warmly applauded. It is said that his flesh was given to be devoured by cats, and that sword-hilts were made of his bones.

5. The third monarch of the name of Darius, was surnamed Codomanus, was the son of Arsanes and Sysigambis, and a descendant of Darius Nothus. When Alexander invaded Persia, and gave Darius a decisive defeat at Arbela, 331 years B. C., the vanquished monarch was slain in his flight by a lieutenant, Bessus, whom he had laden with benefits. He was found dying in his chariot by the Macedonians, and Alexander, learning that he had spoken with kindness of his treatment of his family, honored him with a magnificent funeral, and avenged his murder by the death of Bessus.

6. The army of the Persian monarch consisted of six hundred thousand men, and we are told that it was more remarkable for the splendor of the equipments and the luxury of the men, than for their courage. Athenæus mentions that in the Persian camp there were two hundred and twenty-seven cooks, twenty-nine waiters, eighty-seven cup-bearers, forty perfumers of the king, and sixty-six servants to weave garlands and prepare other ornaments for the dishes which appeared upon the royal table.

7. From the time of the destruction of the Persian monarchy by the Macedonians, it became tributary to Greece. Seleucus Nicanor, at the death of Alexander, became master of Persia, as well as other Asiatic provinces. A revolt of the Parthians partially reconquered it, and for nearly half a century it was tributary to them. At the end of this period, Artaxerxes, a Persian of low birth, but of great courage and energy, excited his countrymen to rebellion, and their success was such that the Persian empire was restored 223 years A. C. Artaxerxes being invested with the sovereign authority, assumed all the attributes of the ancient Persian kings, the title of king of kings, &c., and claimed of the Romans the restoration of all the ancient provinces of the empire. A war ensued, in a single battle of which the Persians sustained a signal defeat by Alexander Severus, but soon recovered from their losses.

8. Sassan, the father of Artaxerxes, gave the name of Sassanidæ to the dynasty which his son founded. The most conspicuous of the series of princes that succeeded Artaxerxes was Sapores I. He conquered from the Romans several Mesopotamian and Syrian cities, which were lost again to the youngest Gordian. In 258, he captured Antioch and penetrated into Cappadocia. Sapores having become odious to his subjects from his cruelties to the emperor Valerian, who was taken prisoner, and to others, was finally assassinated.

9. Hormisdas I., the last of the series, was a prince of a mild temperament, and enjoyed a peaceful reign. On his death, his son threatened to flay the Persian nobles alive for not rising at a regal banquet when he came in from hunting. This threat induced the lords to seize upon the prince and confine him. His wife, who hoped shortly to have a son, was crowned by the Magi, who thus affected to crown her child, who, they were convinced, would be a male.

10. The event did not disappoint their

expectations, and Sapores II. entered the world a king. The Christians underwent a bitter persecution by his orders, 326 years A. C. In an attempt to gain from the Romans the five provinces ceded to them by Narses, he met a terrible defeat from Constantius. In his Mesopotamian war, however, he gained a victory at Sirigate, and took several cities. Julian, in 363, pursued him to the centre of his kingdom, but delivered him from his terror by dying. Sapores died in 380, after a reign of seventy years, which was made lamentable by his ferocity, his pride, and ill success. For forty years the Christians were persecuted by him with bitter animosity. The third prince of the same name was wise and peaceful. Isdigartes first commenced a persecution of Christians which did not end with his reign, but continued through those of a few of his successors.

11. The account of Persia has been brought down to about the time of Alaric, and the government, education, customs, manners, and religion of the Persians, will now occupy our attention for a while. Their government was an absolute monarchy, the crown being hereditary, and generally given to the king's eldest legitimate son at the decease of his father. The Persian kings claimed a respect almost bordering on adoration. Death was the penalty inflicted on the subject who neglected to prostrate himself before his sovereign, or who refused to keep his hands within his sleeves while in the royal presence.

12. The palace of the Persian kings at Persepolis displayed the most refined magnificence. The ceiling and walls of the apartments were gorgeous masses of ivory, silver, gold and amber. The throne was composed of refined gold, amidst the carved tracery of which glittered innumerable precious stones. The material which composed the royal bed was likewise gold, and on each side was placed a coffer containing four thousand talents.

13. The Persian sovereigns were, with few exceptions, wholly abandoned to the gratification of their earthly appetites, and regardless of the examples of bravery, temperance, and virtue, set them by a neighboring nation. In proof of their extravagance we have the authority of Cicero, who says that the revenues of entire provinces were lavished by the kings of Persia on their favorite women, one city supplying them with ornaments for the hair, another with necklaces, &c.

14. Education received the particular attention of the Persians. The children began a course of study at five years old, when they were provided with the best masters, who taught them moral virtues, the arts and sciences, and the practice of frugality and temperance. With their intellectual, their bodily exercises were made to keep pace, as was the custom among the refined nations of antiquity. No child was permitted to enter his father's presence until five years old, lest his loss previous to that age might prove too heavy an affliction.

15. The punishments inflicted upon criminals among the Persians were extremely rigorous. Some of these were the loss of the right hand, decapitation, and crushing to death between two vast stones. The most inhuman was that of fastening the criminal between two boats, in which situation he was prevented from moving, while his head, hands and feet were bare. His face was exposed to the rays of the sun, and was covered with honey to attract swarms of flies, wasps and other insects, which he was unable to repel by the slightest motion. His intestines were devoured by worms, which bred in numbers, and the executioner, by piercing his eyes with an iron barb, forced him to swallow food, and thus prolong his torments. One wretch lived in this condition seventeen days.

16. The Persians were trained to arms, but their admirable archers were the most efficient men in the army. The kings relied, however, more upon the immense multitudes which they could pour upon a hostile country, than the valor of the troops. As these vast bodies fought principally with missiles, it was often difficult to arrange them to advantage, and their total inability to contrive and practise any stratagem, or to fight in the night-time, exposed

them to frequent defeat. They declared war by sending a herald into the country of the enemy, demanding earth and water in token of a recognition of the sovereignty of the Persian king.

17. Their worship was idolatrous, but less so than that of some of the surrounding nations. They professed to believe and worship one God, but they paid adoration to fire as the purest emblem of divine nature. They also, in connection with this, venerated the sun, and paid honors to water, earth, and air. Elam is supposed to have instructed them in the true religion, from which they fell into heresy. Originally, they had only altars erected for the preservation of their sacred fires on the mountain top; but Zoroaster persuaded them to erect temples over them. The sacred fire was kindled from the sunbeams. Their priests were the Magi, and the worship of celestial bodies termed Zabaism.

CHAPTER XCI.

SYRIA.

1. Syria* did not arrive at much importance until the time of Alexander the Great. Little is known of its first kings except what is mentioned in the Bible. It was first inherited by the descendants of Shem's youngest son Aram. Hadadezer was the successful opponent of king David; but Benhadad was three times defeated by Ahaziah and Ahab. The country anciently named Syria fell to the share of Antigonus in the first division of Alexander's empire. Seleucus, afterwards called Nicator, the conqueror, having revolted, made war against Antiochus, who was killed in the battle of Ipsus, and Seleucus became king of Syria, 312 years B. C.

2. Seleucus was no sooner master of this kingdom than he turned his arms against Lysimachus, the conqueror of Macedon. The latter being killed, Nicator seized on his kingdom, but was, not long after, assassinated by Ptolemy Ceraunus, afterwards king of Macedon. The successors of Seleucus are known by the name of Seleucidæ.

3. Antiochus Soter, or the Savior, succeeded the conqueror. When a young man he fell into a lingering disease, the cause of which was disclosed in the following manner: One of the physicians, holding his hand, discovered by the agitation of his pulse, when Stratonice, the youngest and most beautiful of his father's wives, entered the room, that he was dying of love for her. To save his son's life, the father surrendered to him his beloved Stratonice, whom Antiochus married, 280 years B. C.

4. Antiochus Theos, or the God, invaded Egypt, but, making peace with Ptolemy Philadelphus, he married his daughter Berenice, repudiating his own wife. The Parthians, during his absence, entered Syria and founded a new kingdom, and the Bactrians also rendered themselves independent. The first wife of Antiochus having been taken back to her husband's arms on the death of the Egyptian monarch, poisoned Theos, Berenice, and her son, 261 years B. C.

5. Antiochus the Great ascended the throne after the insignificant reigns of Seleucus Callinicus and Seleucus Ceraunus. His first care was to force some of his rebellious governors to submit to him. He then successively invaded Media, Parthia, Hyrcania, Bactria and India, 223 years B. C. His refusal to desist from his design of conquering Asia Minor, brought on the war with the Romans. He was beaten by the Romans after having conquered a part of Greece, and followed into Asia by Scipio Asiaticus, who there defeated him again. Peace was concluded on certain conditions, one of which was the delivery of his son Antiochus, as a hostage to the Romans.

6. During the absence of his father, Seleucus Philopater, who had been left to govern Syria, ascended the throne 187 years B. C. His general Heliodorus was chastised by God in attempting to spoil the

* Syria was on the eastern coast of the Mediterranean, below Cilicia. Palestine was below it, and the coast was called Phœnicia. Arabia and the Euphrates lay upon the south.

temple of Jerusalem. He killed Seleucus by poison on his return. Heliodorus was chastised by Antiochus Epiphanes, or the Illustrious, who was the hostage given to the Romans, and exchanged by them. He ascended the throne, 175 years B. C. He was prevented from conquering Egypt by a Roman ambassador, who compelled him to turn back.

7. His rage and disappointment at this was the cause of his making war on the Jews, whom he slaughtered to the number of forty thousand, after taking Jerusalem, and gained from the inhabitants the surname of Epimanes, the Furious. Judas Maccabæus headed his people, and defeated the generals of Antiochus in several engagements. He perished in pitiable torments, while endeavoring to exterminate the Jews.

8. Antiochus was cruel, wanton, and effeminate. He was fond of childish diversions. He used to scatter money in the streets, and was delighted to see the rush and scramble which took place for it. He used to bathe in public with the common people, and was fond of being perfumed to excess. He invited all the Greeks he could find to an entertainment at Antioch, where he served them in the capacity of a waiter.

9. Antiochus Eupator and Demetrius Soter, continued the war with the Jews, and Alexander, surnamed Belas, abandoned himself to the most dissolute habits. Demetrius Nicator, or the Conqueror, after a reign of five years, was confined for a long time to his palace. Escaping from thraldom, he recovered his dominions, which he governed for four years more.

10. Tryphon, after him, an usurper, who reigned four years, was killed by his own troops. The next Syrian monarch was Antiochus Sidetes, the son of Demetrius, the Savior. He declared war against Jerusalem, but, having forced it to capitulate, the Jews were allowed peace upon very easy terms.

11. He now formed the design of regaining all the provinces which had ever belonged to the territories of Syria, but, having made war against Phraates, king of Parthia, on the approach of winter, found himself obliged to separate his troops and portion them in various quarters. The Parthians determined to destroy them; and thinking this a favorable opportunity, killed four hundred thousand in one day. After this king, reigned Seleucus V., Antiochus Gryphus, so called from his aquiline nose, who reigned twenty-nine years, and Antiochus IX., who was killed by a son of Gryphus.

12. The Seleucidæ having been a turbulent race, the Syrians were desirous of attempting another dynasty, and accordingly sent ambassadors to Tigranes, king of Armenia, inviting him to rule over them. He ascended the throne of Syria 85 years B. C., and for eighteen years after, the country enjoyed peace. Having made war upon the Romans, Lucullus, their consul, defeated Tigranes, and took Tigranocerta,* 69 years B. C. Antiochus Asiaticus, a son of one of the former kings of Syria, was acknowledged king by Lucullus, and reigned four years. He was then expelled by Pompey, and Syria became a Roman province, 64 years B. C.

13. Antioch, Daphne, Seleucia, Damascus, Heliopolis, and Palmyra, or Tadmor, were the most remarkable places of the Syrian empire. Antioch, at one time, ranked as the third city in the world for riches, population, and beauty. It was built partly on a hill, and partly on a plain. Although containing now but a few inhabitants, its walls upon both sides of the Orontes attest its former strength. In the neighborhood was the famous Daphne, a grove consecrated to voluptuousness, and abounding in cool and sparkling fountains, laurel and cypress trees.

14. Seleucia was on the sea near the mouth of the Orontes; it took its name from Seleucus. The fertile valley of Damascus has been always eulogized by the inhabitants of the East. It is now called Damas, or Sham. In Heliopolis, now

* Now Sered, the capital of Armenia, situated on a hill between the springs of the Tigris and mount Taurus. Lucullus found that it contained immense riches, and more than eight thousand talents in ready money.

Baalbec, are the remains of a splendid temple of the sun. The roof, and in fact the whole pile, was formerly resplendent with gold.

15. We are informed by the Scriptures that Palmyra was founded by Solomon. It gave the name of Palmyrene to a vast plain which joined the desert of Arabia. It was a place of great wealth, and carried on an extensive trade. It is now called Tadmor, and its ruins are well worthy the attention of the curious, being vast and magnificent.

16. The Syrians were an idolatrous people. Adonis was worshipped at Byblus, near a river of his name. Adonis, the son of Myrrha, was said to be very beautiful, a devoted huntsman, and the favorite of Venus, who often warned him not to hunt wild beasts. The lovely huntsman disregarded the caution, and was killed by a wild beast. Proserpine is said to have restored him to life when he was so bitterly lamented by Venus, on condition that the latter should enjoy his company but six months of each year, Adonis passing the remaining six with the goddess of the infernal regions. The festivals commenced with lamentations in commemoration of the huntsman's death, but ended with great rejoicings, to mark his restoration to life. The Syriac language, which is fluent, but not copious, was a distinct tongue even in the time of Jacob. It was spoken in Mesopotamia, Chaldea, Syria, Assyria, and, after the Babylonish captivity, in Palestine.

CHAPTER XCII.

PARTHIA.

1. The history of Parthia* begins with the revolt of Arsaces, thought by many to be a descendant of Artaxerxes Mnemon, king of Persia. Arsaces revolted against Antiochus Theos, king of Syria, 256 B. C., founded the kingdom of Parthia, and gave to his successors the name of Arsacidæ. The Parthian empire, in its most flourishing state, included Parthia, Hyrcania, Sogdiana, Bactria, Persia, and Media. It was first subject to the Medes, afterwards to the Persians, and, from the hands of Alexander the Great, fell into the possession of Seleucus Nicator, and was held by the Seleucidæ until Arsaces gained it.

2. The Parthians were fond of war, neglecting every peaceful business, to follow arms. They were the best archers and the finest riders in the world. With such a disposition, they were well fitted to become the subjects of the warlike Arsacidæ, who were almost all conquerors. Mithridates I., the fifth sovereign from Arsaces, was possessed of great abilities, and after conquering many tribes and nations, carried his arms into India,* far beyond the limits of Alexander's progress in that country.

3. Phraates II., a successor of Mithridates, when preparing to invade Syria, was warred against by the Scythians, whom he had engaged as auxiliaries against Antiochus, but who, on account of their not arriving until the defeat of the Syrians, were refused the stipulated sum. Against the Scythians, Phraates resolved to avail himself of the Greek mercenaries who had been captured from Antiochus. They, however, having been treated with cruelty in their captivity, revenged themselves by turning against the Parthians, and assisted the Scythians in killing the king, destroying the army, and laying waste to Parthia. The Chinese on this occasion also gave assistance to the Parthians, and this is said to be the first time they were engaged in a war without their territories. After Artabanus II. and Mithridates II., came Phraates III., and then Orodes I.

* The location and boundaries of Parthia have been given before.

* India, the most celebrated and opulent of the Asiatic countries, derived its name from the river Indus, now Sinde, which bounded it on the one side. It was situated on the sea-coast south of Persia, Parthia, &c. The ancients knew but little of the country, but they described it as containing nine thousand different nations, and five thousand noted cities, and believed that its very sands were golden. The Indians were impressed with terror by the very name of Rome, and sent ambassadors to the emperors to express their submission. Alexander, Semiramis, and many other sovereigns, made conquests in the country.

4. Syria having been allotted to Crassus, the Roman consul, in the division of the empire between Pompey, Cæsar, and himself, he attacked Orodes, who had just ascended the throne, 53 years B. C. Surena, a general of consummate skill and bravery, commanded the troops of Parthia. Crassus was defeated by Surena, who, having invited him to his tent, killed him.

5. Surena, on his return to Parthia, imitated the triumph of a Roman general, and Orodes, jealous of his popularity, caused him to be put to death. Orodes then intrusted the command of the army to his son Pactorus, who was defeated and killed by Ventidius, the Roman general. The loss of Pactorus made the Parthian king delirious; but on recovering his senses, he associated his eldest son Phraates with him on the throne.

6. Phraates IV. was a vile wretch. He administered poison to his father, but finding that only cured his dropsy, he smothered the aged king with the pillows of his bed, and assassinated all his brothers. Augustus, when he came into Asia, forced Phraates to give up the ensigns taken from Crassus and from Antony, and to surrender four of his sons as hostages. He was killed by a conspiracy formed by a female favorite and his own son, 13 years A. C.

7. Three succeeding kings after Phraates reigned but a short time. Verones I. was the last. He was a hostage in the hands of the Romans, but restored to Parthia when his countrymen invited him to become their king. He brought to the throne the dress and manners of the Romans, and thereby offended his subjects, who deposed him to make way for Artabanus III., in whose person the second branch of the Arsacidæ began, 18 years A. C.

8. Artabanus V., the last of this branch, offended the Roman emperor Caracalla, by refusing to permit his daughter to marry him, in consequence of which the Romans entered Parthia and destroyed many cities. After a bloody battle, Macrinus, the successor of Caracalla, made peace with the Parthians. Artabanus was killed by Artaxerxes, who restored the empire to Persia. There were thirteen kings of the second branch, under whose sway the Parthians remained two hundred years. Parthia continued independent four hundred and seventy-five years.

9. The Scythians founded the kingdom of Parthia. Its original inhabitants were a tribe who had been expelled from their native land and settled here. They fought on horseback at full speed, discharging their arrows behind, and their flying warfare was terrific. Their morals were depraved, and they neglected commerce, navigation and agriculture. Their dress was light. Their religion did not differ greatly from that of the Persians, and their kings affected to be gods.

CHAPTER XCIII.

PHŒNICIA.

1. The Phœnicians were, at a very early age, distinguished for their successful cultivation of the arts and commerce. Phœnicia* was divided into many small kingdoms, of which the independent sovereignties of Tyre and Sidon were the most noted. Sidon,† according to Josephus, was built by Sidon, the eldest son of Canaan, and Tyre‡ by his posterity.

2. A much greater antiquity is attributed to the old Tyre by Herodotus. The new city was built upon an island opposite, and was founded, according to Josephus, 1255 years B. C. The ancients tell us that the

* Phœnicia was a narrow slip of ground between mount Libanus and the sea. It had Syria on the north and east, Judea on the south, and on the west the Mediterranean sea.

† Sidon, now *Said*, was the capital of Phœnicia, and had an excellent harbor. It is situated on the Mediterranean sea, about fifty miles from Damascus, and twenty-five from Tyre. It is often mentioned by Homer. Its ruins still present some very fine columns of marble.

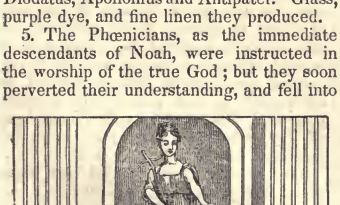
‡ Now *Sur*. It has formed the subject of a note to a preceding chapter of this work. Alexander joined new Tyre to the land. It was adorned with splendid buildings, and protected by walls one hundred and fifty feet in height, and of proportionate solidity. Among its ruins is a double column of granite eighty feet long, and formed of a solid block.

Phœnicians carried on a wonderfully extensive trade, and imported tin from Cornwall, in Wales. Those kings of Phœnicia only who traded with the Jews are known to us. King David, and also Solomon, applied to Hiram, king of Tyre, to erect a temple to God, and he furnished rich materials and workmen.

3. He was succeeded by Baleazar, his son, after a splendid reign. Pygmalion, whose cruelties drove Dido from her country, was the seventh king from Baleazar. The Phœnicians were daring navigators, and famous for their inventions. Any thing which appeared peculiarly elegant, was termed by the ancients Sidonian. Besides Tyre and Sidon, Aradus, Tripoli, Byblus and Sarepta were noted cities.

4. Utica, Carthage, and Marseilles, were peopled by colonies of Phœnicians. They were early famous for the study of philosophy. They are known to have brought letters into Greece, and arithmetic and astronomy were either invented or improved by their ingenuity. Moschus, a Sidonian philosopher, explained the theory of atoms, before the Trojan war. Among their later philosophers we find Bœthius, Diodatus, Apollonius and Antipater. Glass, purple dye, and fine linen they produced.

5. The Phœnicians, as the immediate descendants of Noah, were instructed in the worship of the true God; but they soon perverted their understanding, and fell into



Statue.

heresy, worshipping false deities, and losing themselves in superstitions. They worshipped Beelsmen, or the sun, Baal, Astarte, Hercules, and Adonis. They had small statues called Patæci, which were held in peculiar veneration by mariners, and were carried in the prows of their vessels. Astarte was the same as the Venus of the Greeks. She is represented upon medals in a long habit, over which is a mantle, lifted by one arm, the hand of which is stretched forward. The other hand holds a crooked staff in the form of a cross.

CHAPTER XCIV.

CHINA.

1. China* has claims to a very great antiquity, being undoubtedly one of the most ancient nations on the face of the globe. As far as 2200 years before the birth of Christ, its history is recorded. The most prevalent opinion respecting its origin is, that it was founded by one of the colonies, formed at the dispersion of the immediate posterity of Noah, under the conduct of Yao. This last afterwards made his colleague Chun, his successor.

2. If we adopt the account of a few, we must believe that Fohi, supposed by some to be Noah himself, was the founder of the Chinese empire. The Chinese themselves, from motives of vanity, assert their claims to a still greater antiquity, but are, of course, unable to adduce any testimony in their favor. There have been twenty-two dynasties of sovereigns, four of which, and part of the fifth, preceded the birth of Christ. Hia, the first of these, began 2207 B. C.

* The boundaries of China, as far as it is possible to discover, were the same in ancient as in modern times. We derive the greater part of our acquaintance with antiquity from the Greeks and Romans, who had very little knowledge of the geography of China. Serica and another nation of Northern Sinæ, they tell us, constituted its western provinces. Some suppose that the Ceres, a nation inhabiting the country between the Ganges and the eastern ocean in modern Thibet, according to Ptolemy, were the Chinese. China constituted a very large portion of Eastern Asia, and was separated from Tartary by its stupendous wall of stone, fifteen hundred miles in length.

3. Yu, surnamed Ta, or the Great, was adopted by Chun to the exclusion of his own children, and founded the first dynasty, which lasted four hundred and forty-one years, under seventeen sovereigns. Of these, Yuta, a scholar and theoretical agriculturist, reigned seventeen years. He was acquainted with astronomy, and wrote a valuable treatise upon agriculture.

4. Kya was the last king of this dynasty. His character was bad, and he was universally hated by his subjects, who drove him from his throne and punished him by perpetual exile, three years of which he passed in misery, and then died. The second dynasty was founded by Ching-Tang, 1766 years B. C. He was possessed of ability, virtue, and modesty. Indeed, so diffident was he that he thought himself unfit to wield the sceptre, an opinion in which none of his subjects agreed with him. The exertions of his nobles prevented his abdication of the crown, which he was on the point of making, several times.

5. When Tayvre, one of his successors, was terrified at the occurrence of a prodigy during his reign, which, he thought, portended revolution, his minister addressed to him the following words: 'If you govern your subjects with equity, misfortune will not reach you. Virtue has power to triumph even over prodigies.'

6. Vuthing was a virtuous prince, desirous of procuring the best advice, and of governing his kingdom with justice and wisdom. During the first three years of his reign, he implored heaven to bless him with a disposition fitted for his station. He is said to have had a dream in which he was shown a person chosen by heaven to be his prime minister. He recollected the features of the man when he awoke, and giving a description of him, caused him to be sought for in every direction.

7. The man was discovered at a humble village working in the capacity of a mason. When brought into his presence, the king put several questions to him about affairs of government, which elicited acute and ready replies and information. The king immediately created him prime minister, and had no reason to repent following any advice which he received from him. The second dynasty terminated through the vices of its thirtieth emperor, after having lasted for six hundred and fifty-six years.

8. The third dynasty of the Chinese emperors included thirty-five sovereigns, and is called the dynasty of Tcheou. It began 1110 years B. C., and ended 246 years B. C. Chaus, the third emperor of the Tcheou dynasty, was immoderately fond of the amusement of hunting, destroying in the pursuit of this pleasure, the crops of the Chinese husbandmen, to whose remonstrances upon the subject he turned a deaf ear.

9. They determined upon his death, which they brought about in the following curious manner. They constructed a boat so artfully that, when it had carried the king and his attendants nearly over a stream which they wished to cross in pursuit of game, it came to pieces, and the royal party were all drowned.

10. The celebrated Chinese wall was a monument of the power and enterprise of Ching, the second emperor of the fourth dynasty. He was carried away by pride, in consequence of his various successes, and, that he might be thought the first king of China, he ordered all the public records and historical works of the kingdom to be burned, and many learned men to be entombed alive, hoping thus to prevent the knowledge of past events from reaching posterity. This, which is called the dynasty of Tsin, lasted forty-three years under four emperors, ending 203 years B. C.

11. The fifth dynasty, called Han, began about 200 years B. C. Lienpang, a soldier, having overcome the last emperor of the preceding dynasty, took the name of Kao-Tsou upon ascending the throne of China. His reign was distinguished by moderation and good fortune, Kao-Tsou being a monarch who refused to govern his empire through his eunuchs, like most of the Chinese sovereigns before and after him. Paper, ink, and hair pencils, then as now used instead of pens, were invented during his reign.

12. The emperor Vuti, who possessed

some talent, was a patron of learning, and ordered the doctrines of Confucius to be taught in the schools, became a slave to a singular delusion, fancying that he could discover a liquor which would give him immortality. It is needless to remark that he never found this *eau de vie*. The dynasty of Hun, after lasting, under twenty-five emperors, four hundred and twenty-four years, ended in the year 221 A. C.

13. The sixth dynasty then began. It is called the Heou-Han dynasty. China was divided into three empires, governed by branches of the sixth dynasty, which divisions ceased at various times, and finally became united into one whole under the seventh dynasty, which began in 265, and ended 420 years A. C. This was called the dynasty of Tcin-ou-ti, and included fifteen emperors.

14. The government of the Chinese was patriarchial. Each father had absolute power over all the members of his family, whom, however, he had no authority to put to death. The emperor was the father of all. Each district was governed by a mandarin, who had absolute power over the inhabitants, but could not inflict capital punishment without the concurrence of the emperor.

15. The Chinese made some discoveries in certain sciences and arts, but, satisfied with these, they took no pains about further advancement. They were singularly ill-informed with regard to mathematics, astronomy, and physics. Their knowledge of medicine was most lamentably limited. They are said to have made glass 200 years B. C., to have been acquainted with the manufacture of gunpowder in the earliest ages, and the art of printing in the time of Julius Cæsar. These still remain, in a very rude state, among them.

16. In agriculture and some other arts, they were early noted. The Romans are said to have procured the first silk seen in Rome from the Chinese (Seres) whence it was called Sericum. The Italians, unacquainted with the manufacture of silk, imagined it was made from the leaves of trees. Heliogabalus was the first to wear a dress of this material, which was then so costly that it sold for its weight in gold. It afterwards became a common and cheap dress among the Romans.

17. The Chinese worshipped a superior and all powerful being under the name of Changti, or Tien, and also paid homage to inferior deities, who, they believed, presided over kingdoms, cities, and districts, rivers, and mountains. In their worship they discarded all idolatrous practices, and made use of prayer and thanksgiving.

CHAPTER XCV.

SACRED HISTORY.

1. The creation of the world, according to the most plausible computation, took place five thousand eight hundred and thirty-two years ago. The earth at first was a dark, unformed, fluid mass of matter, in the midst of which God first created light, and afterwards expanded the vast firmament. The waters, at his command, fell into their appointed place, and the dry land became brilliant with flowers and fruits, blushing amidst a luxuriant profusion of verdure. These events occupied the first three days.

2. The next day, the sun and the moon were made, and regulated to make the distinction between day and night, and the division between the seasons of the years. The firmament was also made sparkling with myriads of stars, whose mild and pleasing lustre neither dazzles nor repels the eyes. On the fifth and sixth days, the waters, at the command of the Lord, teemed with countless fishes; the air became bright with the plumage of winged tenants, and the earth was filled with living tribes, to each of which a proper location was assigned.

3. The last great work of the sixth day was the creation of man, a being endowed with reason, and destined to rule over all the animals and the fair earth. His blessed Maker formed him from the dust of earth; in the language of Scripture, 'He breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; and man became a living soul.' He was form-

ed in the image of God, with wonderful faculties, and intended for noble purposes. Every thing was provided to make the path of virtue agreeable and easy.

4. Of a rib taken from the side of man while he was asleep, God formed for him woman to be his companion and comforter. He made her beautiful beyond any of his former creations, and Adam, on awaking, was surprised and delighted with the gift which his Maker had bestowed on him. God thus ordained the holy institution of marriage, and from Adam and Eve, the first pair, sprang the various nations which peopled the face of the earth.

5. Soon after their creation, Adam and Eve were led by the Deity into the garden of Eden,* a place filled with all things which could make existence pleasant, where the productions of the earth were spontaneous, and required no cultivation, and where no care was permitted to intrude upon the virtuous mind. This state was probationary, and the future fortunes of the first pair were to be determined by their own conduct.

6. God, as a test of their obedience, imposed upon them a single injunction. While allowed freely to partake of all other fruits in the garden, they were commanded not to touch those of the tree of the knowledge of evil and of good. The eating of this fruit gave the transgressors an acquaintance with all evil, while, in refraining from it, they remained pure and holy, as at first.

7. Satan, an evil and fallen spirit, assumed the form of a serpent, and finding the woman alone, invited her to transgress the commands of God by eating the fruit. He was endowed with great powers of persuasion, and he succeeded. Eve not only partook of the productions of the tree, but induced Adam to follow her exam-

The Serpent tempting Eve.

ple, and thus unutterable woe was brought upon mankind. Surrounded by all blessings, they had no temptation to err, and the consequences of their crime were truly dreadful.

8. They hid themselves from God, but were called before him and forced to show themselves. He pronounced their sentence while they were overwhelmed with guilt and grief. For their sake the earth was cursed, and its tillage was a work of the hardest labor. The guilty pair were expelled from the garden, the seeds of death were planted in their frames, thence to be transmitted to their offspring, and Eve was doomed to bring forth her children in agony.

9. The agent in producing this misery, the serpent, was doubly cursed, and it was ordained that the offspring of woman should war with it and crush it,—a declaration thought to apply, in its most extensive sense, to Christ, the Savior of mankind. The guilty fugitives, who had been provided by their injured yet merciful Benefactor with coverings of skins, looked back sadly to their once happy abode. There they beheld objects calculated to remind them, if they could for an instant forget it, of their sin. To the east of the garden stood cherubim to guard its entrance, and a fiery sword moving in every direction, prevented all access to the abode of bliss, and to the tree of knowledge.

10. Cain, the first-born child of Adam

* It is plain that the garden of Eden was east of Canaan, or of the wilderness in which the sacred historian, Moses, performed his work, although the precise spot cannot be fixed upon. It is probable that it was somewhere in or about Mesopotamia, from the well-known names of the Tigris, or Hiddekel, and the Euphrates. Although the face of the earth doubtless underwent great changes in the deluge, the Tigris and Euphrates probably pursued nearly the same course, subsequently, as previously to that event.

and Eve, came into the world in its first year, 4004 years B. C. Abel was born on the year after. The characters and occupations of the brothers differed. Abel was peaceful, mild, pious, and virtuous; Cain directly the reverse. For this reason, when Cain brought his offering of the fruits of the earth, the Lord did not look upon it with favor; but the offering of Abel, who was a shepherd, and brought the firstlings of his flock, was acceptable.

11. This excited the indignation of the wild and wicked Cain. He rose against his brother, when they were alone together, and murdered him. God called the murderer before him and pronounced this awful malediction on him: 'A fugitive and vagabond shalt thou be in the earth.' Cain then went from the presence of the Lord into the land of Nod, in which he built a city, called after his son Enoch, to the east of Canaan.* The murder of Abel occurred, as is supposed, about one hundred and thirty years after the creation of the world.

12. During this time, Adam and Eve became doubtless the parents of many children, and after the death of Abel, they had a numerous offspring, the eldest child of whom was Seth. The descendants of Seth, from his and their piety, were called the 'children of God,' while the wickedness, turbulence and impiety of the descendants of Cain procured for them the name of the 'children of men.'

CHAPTER XCVI.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. The death of Cain is unrecorded. Jubal is spoken of as a musician; 'the father of all such as handle the harp and organ.' He was the son of Adah, one of the wives of Lamech. His brother Jabal was the 'father of such as dwell in tents.' Music appears to have been known at a very early age, and its performers were among the first dwellers upon earth. Tubal-Cain was the discoverer of the art of working in brass and iron, the foundation of all mechanic trades.

2. Enos, Cainan, Mahaleel and Jared were the descendants of Seth. Enos was eminently virtuous and pious, and, without passing through the pains of death, he was removed to heaven by the Lord. When taken from the earth, he was three hundred and sixty-five years old. The Scriptures thus record his life and departure: 'Enoch walked with God, and he was not, for God took him.' Methusaleh, the son of Enoch, lived until the very year of the deluge. 'And all the days of Methusaleh were nine hundred sixty and nine years, and he died.'

3. Adam lived nine hundred and thirty years, and consequently knew many whose lives extended nearly to the time of the deluge. The majority of the primitive fathers suppose that he was buried on mount Calvary, the very spot on which Christ suffered the cruel death of the cross for the sins which the first man introduced into the world.

4. The giants are believed to have sprung from the intermarriages of the descendants of Seth with those of Cain. Up to the time of this mixture, the races were separate, the 'children of God' remaining pure, the 'children of men' retaining the character of their progenitor. The race of men then became bloody, wicked and impious, and so incensed the Deity that he determined to destroy them all, and even overwhelm their animals with destruction, sparing only a remnant to stock the earth.

5. He afforded mankind one hundred and twenty years to repent, being merciful and slow to punish. During this space, Noah, a righteous man, warned them of their doom, and endeavored strenuously to awaken that penitence which alone could avert it. The inhabitants of the earth grew more violent and wicked, and Noah and his family alone 'found grace in the eyes of the Lord.'

6. To preserve this family, Noah, following divine instructions, constructed a vast ark of gopher wood, imagined to be that of the cypress tree. It was built in the form of an oblong square, its roof being

* Palestine. It extended from Cœlo Syria to Arabia Petræa; on the west was the Mediterranean, on the east, Arabia Deserta.

sloping, and rising a cubit in the centre. The bottom was flat. It was three stories high, each story, excepting the thickness of the floors, being eighteen feet in height, and divided into separate apartments. It was covered with pitch within and without, to insure its tightness, and the light proceeded from the upper part. It was calculated to float steadily on the surface of the waters.

7. Within this asylum, Noah, his wife, and his sons with their wives, and with two of each tribe of living things, awaited the execution of God's awful sentence on mankind. God opened the windows of heaven, unsealed the fountains of the great deep, and poured the waters on the earth. The waters fell for forty days and forty nights, covering the tops of the highest mountains. Noah remained in the ark one year and ten days. Coming forth when the waters had subsided, he built an altar and offered a sacrifice to the Lord, who bestowed his blessing upon him and his sons.

8. They settled near mount Ararat, on which the ark is said to have rested, in Armenia. The waters subsided after the deluge, in consequence of a strong wind which God sent forth upon the face of them. The traditions of all early nations contain an account of a universal deluge, which testifies the truth of the Scriptures in that point. The configuration and structure of the earth also bear witness to it. Marine productions, found remote from habitations, among high inland mountains, show that the waters once reposed above them.

9. After the deluge, the Lord made an express covenant with Noah. He informed him that he would never send another flood upon the face of the earth; he granted mankind flesh for food, and as an assurance of his good will, he placed his bow in the clouds. Noah became a husbandman, and having cultivated the grape, was discovered drunken in his tent by Ham, who, with ill-timed levity, informed his brethren. Shem and Japheth behaved with respect and decorum to their father, and received his blessing, while he was enraged against Ham for the part he had taken.

10. Noah was six hundred years old when he entered the ark, and lived three hundred and fifty years after the deluge; consequently his whole age was nine hundred and fifty years. The Mesopotamians say that he is buried in their country, and point out his burial place, a tomb in a castle, in the vicinity of Dair Abunah, 'our father's monastery.'

11. An account of the tower of Babel and the confusion of languages has been given in the commencement of Asiatic history. The history of the Israelites from the calling of Abraham, 1921 years B. C., now engages our attention. Abraham, in obedience to the command of God, left his own country and dwelt in Haran with his father Terah. The land of Canaan had been promised to his posterity by the Lord, and accordingly, after the death of Terah, Abraham went thither.

12. The earth was at this time rife with idolatry, and the Lord intended, by the separation of this family, to prepare for the redemption of the world by our Savior. Abraham died, having attained a very great age. Several sons were left behind him; among others, Isaac. Ishmael became the progenitor of a separate nation. Isaac had two sons, Esau and Jacob; the former of whom parted with his birthright for a mess of pottage to the latter.

13. Jacob left a numerous family. Twelve of his sons became founders of the same number of distinct tribes. The name of Jacob was afterwards changed to Israel, and from him the Israelites were descended. He died 1689 years B. C., declaring the period of the coming of the Messiah, and prophesying the future condition of his descendants. His death occurred in Egypt, whither he had been brought from Canaan by his son Joseph.

14. Joseph's story is amply and eloquently related in the sacred writings. His death, 1635 years B. C., was a lamentable event for the Israelites, who were left without a protector. Forty years after this, Pharaoh began that celebrated persecution of God's people, described in the beginning of the book of Exodus, from which the Israelites were delivered by Moses.

CHAPTER XCVII.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. The land of the Canaanites was named after Ham's youngest son, and its settlement took place very soon after the dispersion at Babel. Canaan divided it among his eleven sons, and the name of Canaanites is applied, in Scripture, to eleven different tribes or nations. They labored under influence of the malediction pronounced against Cain, being doomed to captivity, division, extermination or exile. On the multiplication of their population, they are supposed to have settled on the Arabian side of Egypt, where they founded a kingdom at the same time as that of Misraim, from which they were finally expelled.

2. The first event in their history with which we are acquainted, is the invasion of the Vale of Sodom by Chedorlaomer, king of Elam, 1912 years B. C. He compelled them to pay tribute to Persia, and their subsequent revolt brought down a heavy chastisement. It was fifteen years after this that four cities of that delightful valley, viz. Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah and Zeboim, were, for their gross wickedness,

Destruction of Sodom.

overwhelmed with fire from heaven. A lake, called the Dead sea, usurped the place they formerly occupied.

3. There yet remain indications of the nature of the calamity. 'The valley of the Jordan,' says Malte Brun, 'offers many traces of volcanoes; the bituminous and sulphurous water of lake Asphaltites (Dead sea), the lavas and pumice thrown out on its banks, and the warm bath of Tabarieh, show that this valley has been the theatre of a fire not yet extinguished. Volumes of smoke are often observed to escape from lake Asphaltites, and new crevices are found on its margin.'

4. Lot escaped from the destruction; but his wife, by lingering behind, was suffocated, and her body became incrusted with the saline particles. Literal interpreters of the Mosaic account, found a pillar of salt resembling the human form, which the historian Josephus saw and actually believed to be the column into which Lot's wife was changed.

5. After Moses had led forth the Israelites over the bed of the Red sea, and insured their deliverance, the people, having on their previous journey been well supplied with food, began to murmur in the wilderness for want of it. In the spring of the year, vast numbers of quails, which are migratory birds, pass in large flocks over the Arabian peninsula; immense numbers were wafted over the camp of the Israelites by a strong wind against which they could not bear up, and fell to the ground. The next morning the manna, promised by Moses, was found covering the earth. Excepting upon the Sabbaths, it fell forty days while they were in the wilderness.

6. Sertzen and Burckhardt have ascertained that this is produced from the thorns of the tamarisk, whence it exudes in June. The Arabs gather it before sunrise, when it resembles thick gum; but it dissolves the moment the rays of the sun fall upon it. The Bedouins call it 'mann.' 'Its taste is agreeable, somewhat aromatic, and as sweet as honey. It may be kept for a year, and is only found after a wet season.'

7. When the people murmured for water, Moses produced it by striking a rock, when a stream gushed forth copious, pure, and bright. The Amalekites, or, according to Josephus, a confederation of the sheiks of the desert, attacked the Israelites, but were defeated by Joshua after a severe battle, during which Moses, supported by his

brethren, Aaron and Hur, prayed for the success of the people.

8. On mount Sinai, whose peak was shrouded in clouds emitting lightning, and blazing with fire, Moses communed with God, and the laws were given to the children of Israel, which they swore to obey. When Moses ascended into the cloud which hung heavy upon mount Sinai and was absent forty days, the Israelites fell back into the idolatry of the country which they had left, and caused Aaron to make a golden image of a calf, or the ox Apis, which Moses destroyed when he returned from the mountain. The indignant tribe of Levi fell upon the idolaters and slew three thousand of them. The mountain exhibited all the appearances of a volcano, and yet a philosophical observer has determined, from its geological formation, that it was never subject to internal fires.

9. Moses numbered the children of Israel of twenty and over, in the second year of their absence from Egypt, and found that, besides the Levites, there were six hundred and three thousand five hundred and fifty men capable of doing military duty. Twelve men, sent to examine the land of Canaan, returned with an unfavorable account, with the exception of Joshua and Caleb, who made a favorable report. Upon this the people murmured, and God condemned all who were twenty years and upward upon leaving Egypt, to die in the wilderness, with the exception of Joshua and Caleb.

10. The Israelites began to travel in the wilderness 1489 years B. C. A revolt of Korah, Dathan, and Abiram was punished by an opening of the earth, which swallowed them and two hundred and fifty of their confederates, 1452 years B. C. The Israelites began their conquests by successes gained over the monarchs of the Amorites, Bashan, Moab, &c.

11. From the top of Mount Nebo, or Abarim, Moses, before he died on that spot, viewed the land of promise which he was never to enter. The winding Jordan falling into the Dead sea, the hilly pasturage-land of Gilead, the beautiful district of Bashan, the plain of Esdraelon, the luxuriant hills of Lower Galilee, the embowering palm-trees of Jericho, and the mountains of Judea, towering, in a gradual rise, until they reached the sea, formed a glorious landscape which the great lawgiver gazed upon, peopling it, in fancy, with his busy and numerous people, ere he sank to rest, calmly and forever. He reached the age of one hundred and twenty.

Moses viewing the Land of Promise.

12. Joshua, having destroyed most of the wicked nations in the land of promise, established the Israelites in the long-looked-for country. Jericho was taken by this great leader. During the defeat of the Amorites, who leagued under the command of Adonibezek, king of Jerusalem, the sun and moon, at the command of Joshua, stood still. Thus a death-blow was given to the superstition of the country, the worship of the sun and moon, which was so prevalent an idolatry. Joshua died aged one hundred and ten, 1426 years B. C.

13. After this, the Israelites, with a few intervals, were under the direction of the judges for the space of three hundred and fifty-six years. These officers and the priests claimed and received a proper respect; but the children of Israel acknowledged no king but their God. The judges often delivered the people from the distresses which their frequent recurrence to idolatry brought upon them.

14. The period of the judges has been called, not inaptly, the heroic age of Hebrew history. Personal activity, daring, and craft, were qualifications which se-

cured celebrity to the judges. They were rather warlike leaders than peaceful expounders of the law. They wielded the sword of justice in person. A Levite, returning homeward with his concubine, or inferior wife, entered the city of Gibeah in the territory of Benjamin, the inhabitants of which maltreated the woman, who died in consequence.

15. The Levites cut the body to pieces, and sent a piece to each of the tribes who took up arms in the cause, assembling at Mizpeh. The tribe who were summoned to repair the injury, refusing to give up the delinquents, the city of Gibeah was taken, and Benjamin defeated with the loss of twenty-five thousand men—the city was levelled with the earth, and men, women, and children put to the sword. The six hundred men who survived were permitted to marry the women of Jabesh, in Gilead, the male inhabitants of which had been killed for a heinous crime.

16. Shamgar, one of the judges, killed six hundred Philistines with an ox-goad, a weapon described by Maundrell to be a strong pike, eight feet long, with a heavy-pointed iron at the end. When the Israelites had long suffered the oppression of the Midianites, they called upon the Lord to deliver them, and he sent an angel unto Gideon, who announced to him that he was chosen to free his people. Gideon, pursuant to divine directions, selected three hundred of the bravest men out of an army of thirty-two thousand, whom he had assembled. Each of these carried a lamp concealed in an earthen jar, and a trumpet.

17. At a given signal, each soldier dashed his jar to atoms, and blew his trumpet with all his force. The affrighted enemies, suddenly startled, turned upon each other, friend hewed down friend, and the terrors of the herds increased the confusion. The flying Midianites were put to death by the remaining portion of Gideon's troops. The Ephraimites, and some others, joined against Gideon, and the war was ended with a loss of one hundred and twenty thousand on the part of the opponents of Israel.

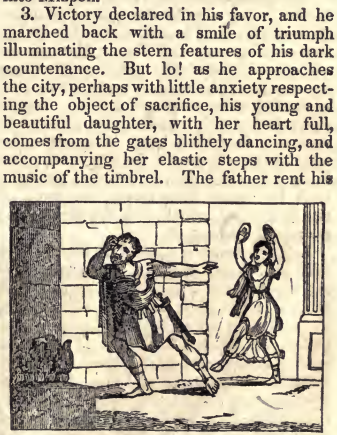
CHAPTER XCVIII.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. Jephthah was an illegitimate son of Gilead. He had been driven unjustly from his father's house, and following the impulse of a daring spirit, took refuge in a wild district, and became a famous leader of freebooters, a profession then held in no more disrepute than was that of pirate in the early ages of the Grecian states.

2. His kinsmen in their trouble sent for him, and made him head of their city. Negotiation proving fruitless, Jephthah prepared to decide the question with the Amonitish king, by the arbitration of arms. Before he girded himself for battle, the chief vowed that in case of a victorious return, he would sacrifice the first living thing which met his view on his entrance into Mizpeh.

3. Victory declared in his favor, and he marched back with a smile of triumph illuminating the stern features of his dark countenance. But lo! as he approaches the city, perhaps with little anxiety respecting the object of sacrifice, his young and beautiful daughter, with her heart full, comes from the gates blithely dancing, and accompanying her elastic steps with the music of the timbrel. The father rent his



Jephthah meeting his daughter.

hair in agony; but the daughter, with all the spirit of a noble maiden, insisted upon dying.

4. Samson, the son of Manoah, of the tribe of Dan, was a man of extraordinary

strength, and the inveterate enemy of the Philistines.* This extraordinary person did not carry on hostilities in any regular manner, or lend himself to the combinations of his countrymen, but was fond of performing individual feats of daring, rushing into situations of peril from which his personal strength extricated him unharmed.

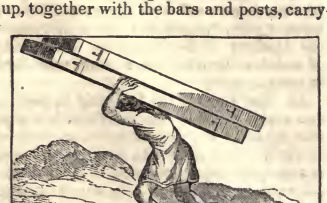
5. He was a Nazarite, dedicated to God from his birth, and consequently vowed to observe strict abstinence, and was to permit his hair to grow unshorn. He obtained leave of his parents to marry a Philistine woman whom he had seen and loved at Timnath. On his way, he slew a young lion, and dragged his carcass into a cave, where he soon found that the bees had made a hive of it. He therefore proposed this riddle to thirty youths at his bridal feast: *Out of the eater came forth meat, and out of the strong came forth sweetness.*

6. The answer to the riddle was betrayed to the young men by the wife of Samson, to whom he had imparted it. The indignant bridegroom exclaimed, *Had ye not ploughed with my heifer, ye had not found out my secret.* Having slain thirty Philistines in his anger, he returned home. Coming again to his wife, he found her married to another, and, filled with indignation, he caught three hundred jackals, and, tying them tail to tail with a firebrand between each, he loosed them among the crops of the Philistines, which they set fire to and completely destroyed.

7. The enemy retaliated by burning the wife and father-in-law of Samson. Having slain great numbers, the strong man retired to the rock of Etam, after which, the numerous and irritated Philistines compelled the disheartened tribe of Judah to surrender their daring champion. He was brought to a pass named Lehi, where they received him bound and apparently helpless. But the *Spirit of the Lord* came upon Samson, and he rose up and brake the bonds as if they had been flaxen, and seizing the jaw-bone of an ass, slew with that singular weapon, a thousand men.

* Philistea had Judea on the east, Idumea on the south, and the Great, or Mediterranean sea upon the west.

8. When he visited a woman in Gaza, the chief city of Philistia, his enemies shut the gates upon him; but the mighty man rose in the night time and tore them up, together with the bars and posts, carrying them upon his shoulders to a hill nearly twenty miles off. The snares of Delilah proved too powerful even for the strong warrior, who knelt before her. To her he disclosed the secret of his wonderful strength, which lay in his hair, the preservation of which formed a part of his Nazaritish vow.



Samson carrying off the Gates.

9. As he slept at her feet, she deprived him of his locks, and he woke weak and helpless. The Philistines rushed upon him and bound him with brazen fetters. His eyes were put out, and his insulting enemies forced him to labor in a mill. To enjoy their triumph, the Philistines brought him into a kind of amphitheatre, surrounded with seats, sheltered with a roof, and depending for support upon two pillars. These Samson grasped, and his strength having returned with his hair, which had grown in captivity, he tore down the building, and destroyed both himself and his spectators.

10. Samuel was the last of these leaders. He was the son of Hannah, the wife of Elkanah, the Levite, who had long been childless, and who promised to devote her offspring, should she be blessed with a son, to the Lord. The worship of Jehovah had now been defiled by the introduction of the vile practices of the heathen, and to Hophni and Phineas these pollutions

were attributable. In the midst of extraordinary and almost unprecedented corruption, Samuel grew up pure and blameless. God communed with him while a child, and told him to communicate to the aged Eli, the father of Hophni and Phineas, the fate which awaited his family. The war between the Philistines and Israelites broke forth with ungovernable fury. In a dreadful battle at Aphek in the north of Judah, the Israelites were defeated.

11. They had recourse to a measure which had often proved successful; they sent for the ark, but the time had gone by when its appearance was enough to turn the tide of battle; when the strong enemy bowed his face, and the strong wall fell, and the mighty rivers were dried up at its presence. The wild valor of the Philistines, and the mighty force of their iron chariots, prevailed. Thirty thousand Israelites were killed, and the voluptuous sons of Eli died the death of warriors, with weapons in their hands.

12. Eli himself sat silent by the wayside, anxiously expecting news from the field of fight. A messenger, a wild, sad, solemn, and hasty messenger arrived—blood and dust were on his garments—the worst was told—the Philistines were triumphant, and the *ark of God was taken.* Then arose the wild cry of women, then broke forth the groans of aged men. The wife of Phineas gave birth to a son prematurely, whom she called Ichabod,—the glory is departed from Israel.

13. The loss of the ark proved to the children of Israel that the Lord had turned away his countenance in wrath from them. What then was their surprise when the Philistines themselves returned the sacred ark! Since they had taken it, there had been no joy, no prosperity in their land. Statues had fallen from their pedestals, mice had laid waste their extended fields, and a loathsome disease had fallen upon themselves. It was brought back with a car to which they yoked two milch kine, and which they heaped with offerings.

CHAPTER XCIX.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. For twenty years after this time the Israelites groaned under the iron yoke of the Philistines, until Samuel, having attained manhood, summoned a general assembly at Mizpeh. The Israelites feared the most dreadful consequences, as the Philistines, hearing of the insurrection, collected all their forces to suppress it. However, the Lord was with Samuel, and his people prevailed.

2. The civil administration of Samuel was distinguished by energy and prosperity. He united all the southern tribes, and held three annual sessions for the discharge of all judicial duties. The two sons of Samuel, however, who were, in the old age of their father, his assistants in the government, proved venal and unjust, and the people murmured greatly.

3. Samuel soon found that they wished to be governed by a king, who should be their judge, and who should organize a regular military force, going out to battle with his armies in person, when a time of danger occurred. He fixed upon Saul, the son of a Benjamite chieftain, a young man of tall person and expressive countenance, who had come from the east in search of some lost property of his father.

4. He was privately anointed by Samuel, and then passed through a preparatory course of study, being placed in one of the schools of the prophets, where he became thoroughly acquainted with religious knowledge, sacred music, and sacred poetry. He now cast aside whatever undignified or loose habits he might have previously had, and mingled in the sacred dances. His mind teemed with aspiring and lofty thoughts, and his former wandering companions exclaimed in wonder, *Is Saul among the prophets?*

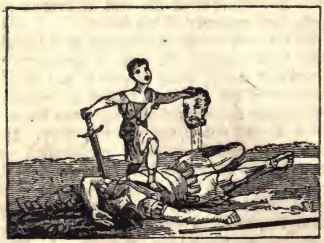
5. Saul was received as king by an assembly at Mizpeh. His election was opposed by a few factious members of the assembly; but a vast majority were unanimously in his favor. His reign commenced

with a great victory over the Ammonites. Samuel, having resigned his office as judge, formally inaugurated the king 1079 years B. C.

6. When some years of his reign had passed over, the Philistines with three thousand chariots, and six thousand horse, broke into the country and ravaged it. Saul took the office of priest upon himself, and offered sacrifice at Gilgal.* The Philistines divided, part going to the north, part to the valley near the Dead sea. Saul, with only six hundred ill-equipped men, was shut up in the fortress of Gibeah.

7. Here one of those gallant acts of personal daring which are so frequent in the annals of the Jews, delivered them. Jonathan, a brave youth, the son of Saul, without the knowledge of his father, and accompanied only by his armor-bearer, scaled the rock which formed the enemy's outpost, slew twenty men, and threw all into confusion. Saul, profiting by this, made a sally and defeated the enemy. Saul, after having persecuted David, the son of Jesse, and committed many other crimes, died miserably after the battle of Gilboa.

8. David, his successor, who had previously been anointed by Samuel, was talented,



Death of Goliath.

brave, and pious. Samuel found him tending his father's flocks, the youngest of Jesse's children. He was then brave as he was beautiful, having already slain a lion and a bear. In the course of the Philistine war, a fierce giant, Goliath of Gath, defeated the whole army of the Israelites. David, although but a stripling, went boldly forth against his mighty foe, whose huge limbs were cased in brazen armor. The son of Jesse had only a sling, with which he fixed a stone in the forehead of his enemy, who sank to the earth.

9. The maidens, in their songs of triumph, exalted David, as a warrior, above Saul, and this first exasperated the king against him. The life of Saul was frequently in his hands, but David generously spared him. Between him and the king's son Jonathan, there existed a warm friendship which nothing could destroy. David was at first only king of Judah; but after the death of Ishbosheth, a son of Saul, he reigned over all Israel.

10. His greatest crime was productive of the deepest repentance. Having seized upon Bathsheba, a married woman, he gave orders that her husband Uriah should be exposed in a place of danger, where, as David intended, he lost his life. The king of Israel deeply repented his guilt, and after much suffering, was taken again into favor by the Lord. Domestic crimes and calamities severely punished him. The loss of Absalom, his son, was a severe affliction.

11. Absalom was the dearly-beloved son of David. He had been pardoned when he deserved punishment, and his revolt against his father was truly ungrateful. In his rebellion, he was aided by Ahithophel, a cunning and unprincipled man, and David was forced to fly. A decisive battle took place, in which the troops of David, under Joab, completely defeated the rebels.

12. The peculiar beauty of Absalom's head consisted in the unrivalled luxuriance of his long hair. The battle was fought in a place encumbered with wood, and the rebel leader, riding at full speed, was caught in the boughs of an oak, from which he hung by the hair. Joab, who had been commanded to spare Absalom, transfixed

* Near the northern part of the Dead sea,—in Samaria.

his body with three javelins. The news

Death of Absalom.

of his death was almost a death-blow to king David.

13. David made Jerusalem the seat of the Hebrew government. It was, when he took it, a strong fortress on the confines of Judah and Benjamin, which its native inhabitants, the Jebusites, had held ever since the conquest of Canaan. The hill of Sion was on the south, divided from the other eminences over which the city spread by a deep and narrow ravine. On this hill was the citadel. Deep ravines and valleys, beyond which mountains rise, encompass Jerusalem upon every side, excepting the north, where a level way seemed to have been prepared for the arrival of the tribes, without difficulty, at the holy city.

CHAPTER C.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. David died after a reign of forty years, 1015 years B. C. He left his kingdom in a flourishing condition. His son Solomon succeeded. The most important undertaking of Solomon was the building of the temple, a trust which was bequeathed to him by his father, whose declining years were spent in making preparations for it.

2. Solomon ascended the throne at the age of twenty. His choice of wisdom above all other gifts, prepared the people for a peaceful and just administration, nor were they deceived in their anticipations. His wisdom was displayed in the well-known test to which he put the respective claims of two women who contested their right to a child. He commanded the infant to be divided, and one half given to each claimant. The real mother, to save the life of her child, was willing to relinquish it; the pretended parent assented to the partition, and thus betrayed the injustice of her demand.

3. The daily consumption of Solomon's household was three hundred bushels of fine flour, and thrice that quantity of a coarser kind; ten oxen, fattened with care, twenty of the common sort; one hundred sheep, and various kinds of venison, with quantities of poultry. A vast number of dromedaries and forty thousand horses were to be provided for. These burthens came not heavy to the people at first, but we are expressly told that *Judah and Israel were many, as the sands which is by the sea in multitude, eating and drinking, and making merry.*

4. Solomon entered into a matrimonial alliance with the royal family of Egypt, receiving the princess with great honors. With the king of Tyre he renewed his alliance, and that monarch, by sending men and materials, was of the greatest service in the building of the temple.

5. Solomon made a contract with the Tyrians, agreeing to supply them with quantities of corn, in return for which, quantities of cedar timber were floated down to Joppa, and a body of Sidonian artisans, particularly skilful in the art of working metals, arrived. Solomon employed his own subjects to cut the timber. He raised a body of thirty thousand, dividing them into three parties. Each party labored one month, and then enjoyed two months of rest.

6. Seventy thousand men were employed to carry burthens, and eighty thousand as hewers of rock, among the mountain quarries. These laborers were not Israelites, but principally descendants of the Canaanites, and strangers whose dwelling in the country was a favor to them. The temple

was completed in seven years. It was gorgeous and grand.

7. The materials employed were of such great value, the workmanship was of such perfection, that its high rank among the edifices of antiquity is well deserved. Its size was by no means great, being little more than one hundred feet long, while the width was seventy, and the height fifty-two and a half feet. It was of noble proportions, and very richly ornamented, glittering with gold throughout.

8. Solomon's palaces vied in splendor with the temple. The dreams of eastern bards, the fairy conceptions of inspired artists, can scarcely picture any scene more brilliant than his dwellings presented, more imposing than Solomon on his throne of ivory, receiving the homage of princes, who came to behold his splendor, and admire his wonderful wisdom. Effeminacy came to be the debasing crime of Solomon in his old age.

9. From his extensive commerce, wealth poured in upon the sacred city; *silver was in Jerusalem as stones, and cedar trees as sycamores.* When the peace of Solomon was disturbed by the revolts which occurred about him, he could not even pride him upon the dignity of injured innocence, for he transgressed the commands of the Lord, and the inmates of his vast seraglio had not only gained his consent to the performance of idolatrous rites, but to the unholy deities of the heathen he dedicated a hill which overlooked Jerusalem almost fronting the glorious temple he had erected.

10. He wrote the book of Proverbs, the Canticles and Ecclesiastes, inspired by the Divinity. How impressive a lesson is conveyed by the estimate of human life made by one who was envied for the splendor of his existence, in the book of Ecclesiastes. *Vanity of vanities! vanity of vanities!* is the mournful exclamation of the wisest man. Solomon was warned by the prophet Abijah of the division of the kingdom, and the allotment of the ten tribes to Jeroboam, which was to take place after his death. Having reigned forty years, he died at the age of fifty-eight, 975 years B. C.

CHAPTER CI.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. With Solomon the might and majesty of Israel perished. Rehoboam, the son of Solomon, assumed the sceptre, 975 years B. C. The people groaned beneath the yoke imposed by Solomon, and the revolt of the ten tribes was the consequence of Rehoboam's refusal to alleviate their sufferings. In the true spirit of an eastern despot, he replied to their complaints in the following language: '*My father made your yoke heavy, and I will add to your yoke; my father chastised you with whips, but I will chastise you with scorpions.*'

2. Jeroboam, an enterprising domestic of the monarch, headed the revolters, who broke forth with the cry, '*To your tents, O Israel!*' The tribes of Judah and Benjamin preserved their allegiance to Rehoboam, but not one of the ten tribes that left him returned, and from that time, Israel and Judah were governed as separate kingdoms. Jeroboam, the first king who ruled over the ten tribes, was guilty of idolatry, and his successors were in general impious and vicious men.

3. The people, during the early period of Jeroboam's reign, still went to worship at Jerusalem, which practice the king determined to end, if possible. He accordingly made two golden calves which the people worshipped, and, by this idolatrous practice, drew down the vengeance of God upon his house. Rehoboam having reigned seventeen years, Abijah, his son, succeeded him, 962 years B. C., and made immediate preparations for subduing the kingdom of Israel.

4. A bloody battle was fought between the forces of Abijah and Jeroboam at mount Ephraim, in which the latter, notwithstanding he opposed a force of four hundred thousand men with twice that number, was defeated with a loss of five hundred thousand men. After this, the king of Israel never recovered his former decision or authority.

5. Abijah reigned but three years. His

son Asa, a prudent and pious man, succeeded him, 959 B. C. Asa established the religion of his country in all its splendor, encouraged the advent of worshippers from all quarters, and punished idolatry with great rigor, degrading even the queen mother who was guilty of it, and passing sentence of banishment upon her.

6. During the reign of Asa, the memorable invasion of Zerah took place. This powerful enemy of Judah was probably either the general of Osorchon, king of Egypt, or that monarch himself. He came upon Judah with a million well-armed men, and three hundred thousand chariots, but met with a determined and successful resistance from Asa.

7. During the peaceful reigns of the kings of Judah, the kingdom of Israel was in a state of continual trouble and excitation. Nadab, the son and successor of Jeroboam, 957 B. C., was dethroned and killed, together with all his house, by Baasha, 995 years B. C. Baasha reigned twenty-four years. The son of Baasha (Ela) succeeded his father, 932 years B. C. He was overthrown by Zimri, and the latter by Omri, 930 B. C. Zimri perished in the flames of the royal residence at Tirzah, to which he himself set fire when the city was taken by Omri.

8. Ahab, the son of Omri, ascended the throne, 919 years B. C. The apostasy and wickedness of the ten tribes now reached its height. He married the cruel Jezebel, daughter of the king of Sidon. Under the influence of this fierce and unprincipled woman, he committed all manner of wickedness.

9. In the midst of these days of trouble, the prophets did their duty. Among all eastern nations, persons making pretensions to divine inspiration, are regarded with peculiar reverence and awe. Even idiots, in whom the *divina mens* is extinct, claim protection from the orientals. Thus the appearance of Elisha at Damascus, and Jonah at Nineveh, are by no means unworthy of belief.

10. The Hebrew prophets, considering them without regard to their commission from God, present a course of conduct which will bear the strictest scrutiny. They are never found upon the side of royal oppression or injustice; but they stand forth as true patriots, fearlessly and energetically denouncing all measures which tend to the degradation of the national character. Nor were their words and residence confined to their own land; they were treated with the greatest respect when they passed its boundaries.

11. Elijah, having denounced the vengeance of God upon Israel, should the king and people still continue their idolatries, and disregard their national worship, fled to a brook which emptied into the Jordan, and in his concealment was fed by ravens, or, as some translate the word, by travelling Arabian merchants. When the brook dried up, Elijah fled into the dominions of his enemies, the Sidonians, and took refuge in Sarepta,* where he was provided for by a charitable widow, whose son the prophet restored to life.

12. Elijah was the instrument of manifesting the divine power in all its glory. The drought which was sent as a curse upon the worshippers of Baal, (the sun,) continued to an alarming degree, and it was determined to put the two religions to the test of a miracle. Whichever sacrifice was first kindled by fire from heaven, was to decide the question.

13. The priests of Baal assembled upon mount Carmel† to the number of four hundred and fifty. Elijah alone stood forth, opposed to them, as the worshipper of the true God. The priests of Baal placed their sacrifice upon the altar. As their god showed himself, red and bright, in the east, the idolaters lifted up the music of their orisons, and the smoke of the burning incense curled upward to salute him. From the rising of the sun even unto the going down of the same, they summoned him to show his power—in vain.

14. Elijah then raised an altar composed of twelve stones, and, having filled the

* Sarepta, now Sarcand, a Phœnician town between Tyre and Sidon.

† From this spot a most extensive and noble prospect was presented,—the sea being upon one side, and the land of promise on the other.

surrounding trench with water, and laid his victim on the pile, he uttered a simple but

Elijah's Altar.

fervent prayer to the true God, and the flames descended from on high—they consumed the altar as well as the victim, and licked up the water in the trench. The hand of God was recognised, the priests of Baal were put to death, the national worship restored, and the drought which had withered up the vegetation of the land, removed.

CHAPTER CII.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. Ahab, at the instigation of his cruel queen, caused Naboth to be stoned to death for refusing to give up his vineyard. Elijah instantly re-appeared and denounced the vengeance of God to the astonished king, who learned, with trembling and horror, the fate which awaited himself and family. He was told that the dogs should lick his blood, that a cruel death awaited Jezebel, and violent deaths should terminate the lives of all the members of his family.

2. Meanwhile the kingdom of Judah had experienced tranquillity and prosperity. Asa, having reigned forty-one years, was succeeded by his son Jehosaphat, 918 years B. C. The course of policy which this prince pursued, was ill-judged. He formed an alliance with the king of Israel, and married his son, Jehoram, to Athaliah, the daughter of Ahab, who was haughty and cruel, like Jezebel.

3. The death of Ahab happened in the manner which Elijah had foretold. Having resolved to get possession of a town which the Syrians held, he prepared for war. First, however, he was to consult the prophets, according to custom; but he had avoided all opposition to his will, by raising a body of them who were wholly devoted to his interests. These false prophets predicted the success of his expedition. Micaiah, who dared to warn the king of his approaching end, was thrown into prison, and Ahab was shot by a random arrow in the commencement of the battle with the Syrian troops.

4. Jehosaphat took care that the national religion should receive no detriment. When the Moabites and Amorites leagued against him, and appeared in great force, the Lord threw them into inextricable confusion, and they fought with each other.

5. Ahaziah, the son of Ahab, succeeded him, and during his reign the alliance between the kingdoms continued. Jehoram succeeded his brother after a short reign of two years. As soon as he ascended the throne, he organized a union of the forces of Israel, Judah, and Edom, to punish the revolt of the king of Moab, who had refused the payment of his tribute.

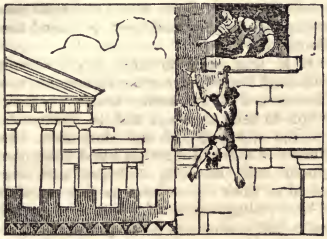
6. The allied forces found themselves bewildered without water, at the foot of the Dead sea. Elisha had now assumed the prophetic office, and it was in pursuance of his advice, that they cut deep trenches in the arid desert, into which the water from the highlands of Edom flowed abundantly. These pools, illumined by the red glare of sunrise, were supposed by the Moabites to be blood, which had been shed by the allies, who, they hoped, like most confederate troops, had quarrelled and slaughtered each other.

7. They accordingly descended to the plunder of the camp, but were met by the most determined and unexpected opposition, and in consequence defeated on all sides, being saved from ultimate destruction by some difference among the victorious troops, which led to their withdrawal to their separate quarters.

8. Jehoram, son of Jehosaphat, succeed-

ed, and his connection with the house of Ahab was productive of disaster and bloodshed. Thus princes of the same name reigned over Israel and Judah. Jehoram died after a calamitous reign, and was succeeded by his son Ahaziah, 885 years B. C.

9. Ahaziah went against the Syrian monarch with Jehoram, king of Israel, and was slain by Jehu, when that warrior destroyed Jehoram and the seventy sons of Ahab. Jehu, although a wicked man, was the scourge of the idolaters, and the instrument of God's vengeance upon evildoers. The vile Jezebel was cast from the window whence she gazed with painted



Death of Jezebel.

cheeks and a gaudy attire, as Jehu made his triumphant entry in Jezreel. The sole remains of her person, which could be collected for burial, were the skull, the feet, and the palms of the hands, for, in the words of Elijah, *the dogs had eaten the flesh of Jezebel in the portion of Jezreel.*

10. In Jerusalem, scenes of the bloodiest nature passed, for Athaliah, with even greater wickedness than might have been expected from the blood which flowed within her veins, murdered all the princes of royal descent, with the exception of Joash, who was hidden and preserved by his father's sister, the wife of the high-priest. Athaliah's reign continued six years, when a revolt was raised and headed by the high-priest. As the wicked queen entered the temple, she beheld the rightful heir crowned and clad as a king, surrounded by a respectful multitude. She shrieked, '*Treason!*' but the wild tones of her voice were drowned in the stern clangor of the trumpets, and the shouts of the revolted people. Resistless and despairing, she was dragged through the gates of the temple beyond the consecrated ground, and slain, 878 years B. C.

11. The young king being but seven years of age, at the time of his coronation, Jehoida, the high-priest, assumed the reins of government, and used his power well. He abolished the idolatrous usages which had crept in among the people, and restored the sacred vessels of the temple, which had been profaned by Athaliah, to their proper use. During the lifetime of Jehoiada, Joash confined himself to the strict observance of the national worship, but on the death of the high-priest, abandoned himself to idolatry.

12. Zechariah, the son of Jehoiada, rebuked the king, and for daring thus to do his duty, was stoned to death by command of Joash. The consequences of this defection from the path of virtue were such as the idolatrous monarch should have dreaded. God raised up victorious enemies against him. The Syrians, with but a small force, defeated him, and the Jewish officers revenged the disgrace which their king had brought upon them, by murdering him in his bed. His body did not find a place in the royal sepulchres of Judah.

CHAPTER CIII.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. Amaziah, his son, succeeded Joash, and revenged his death by the execution of the murderers, but with a moderation unusual in the sanguinary judicial proceedings of those times, he did not involve the children of the assassins in the punishment deserved by their fathers' crimes. Meantime, in the kingdom of Israel, Jehoahaz, who had succeeded Jehu, reduced Samaria to a state of weakness bordering upon dependence. Of its once powerful armament, there remained but ten chariots, fifty horsemen, and ten thousand foot soldiers.

2. Jehoash, the king of Israel, having re-established his kingdom in its former

strength, advanced, in defiance of the menaces of Amaziah. All opposition yielded to his victorious arms. Carnage and submission followed the gleam of his steel, and the trampling of his horses. Jerusalem—Jerusalem was taken, and its sacred treasures borne away to Samaria. Amaziah, like his father, perished by internal conspiracy, fifteen years after the death of his rival.

3. He was succeeded by his son Uzziah, or Azariah, 809 B. C. He was a virtuous prince, and his reign of fifty-one years was marked by prosperity. His successes against the Philistines and Arabians, induced him assiduously to cultivate the science of war. He provided his troops with armor of the newest and most approved fashion, and introduced all the recent improvements in fortification, and the defence of walled towns. The latter part of his reign was marked by a defection from the path of rectitude.

4. Inflamed by success, he dared to violate the law in the most flagrant manner, by usurping the sacerdotal office, and offering incense on the altar in person. For this presumption, he was struck by the Almighty with leprosy, and in pursuance to the regulations of the Mosaic law with regard to lepers, he was removed, the administration was taken out of his hands, and given to his son Jotham.

5. In the kingdom of Israel, Jeroboam the 2d, who succeeded his father Joash, 822 years B. C., was victorious in his warlike attempts to extend the boundaries of his kingdom. The entire frontier from Harmath to the Dead sea, was re-established, and Damascus given up to his enterprising troops. After the death of Jeroboam, a frightful state of anarchy subsisted for eleven years.

6. The son of Jeroboam, Zachariah, finally succeeded in obtaining possession of the throne, 770 B. C. Shallum soon killed him, and Shallum was in turn slain by Menahem. Menahem assumed the sceptre, B. C. 769, and wielded it ten years. The tributes which he wrung from his groaning people, arrested for a while the tide of Assyrian power, which threatened to roll furiously over Israel. Pul, the king of Assyria, accompanied his menaces with evidences of strength which caused fear to thrill through the hearts of the nations whom he marked for chastisement and conquest.

7. Menahem was succeeded by his son Pekahiah, B. C. 759. Ten years after his accession to the throne, he was slain by Pekah, who usurped the sceptre. Jotham, it is remembered, began to reign in the lifetime of his father, the leper. He was pious and valiant; he fought against the Ammonites, whom he conquered and rendered tributary. Ahaz, his son and successor, was one of the worst and most unsuccessful princes that ever darkened the throne of Judah.

8. It was at this time, when clouds gathered heavily above the fortunes of the Hebrews, that the awful voices of their prophets rose to warn and to denounce. As the storm closed and darkened, the flashes of their inspiration burst upon the gloom with dazzling splendor, and the sound of their voices was as the thunder of God rolling overhead. But these awful tones had a meaning and a purpose.

9. The various prophets of different kingdoms had each some peculiar topic upon which all his eloquence and all his energy were exercised; but Isaiah took an interest and a share in all the principal transactions, from the reign of Azariah to that of Hezekiah, and to him may be traced the first clear intimation of the appearance of Christ, the Messiah whom the Jews blindly refused to recognise.

10. During the reign of Pekah, the last powerful and talented monarch of Israel, Ahaz ascended the throne of Judah, 742 years B. C. Pekah, with the assistance of Rezin, king of Damascus, invaded Judea. He made two separate descents, in the last of which one hundred and twenty thousand men of Judah perished, among them the king's son Maaseiah, who was slain by Zichri, an Israelitish captain. The Israelites, however, with a burst of feeling unlooked for in those bloody times, refused to retain in captivity the two hundred thousand men, women, and children, whom

their army had captured. They sent them home supplied abundantly with food and raiment, and this conduct is to be ascribed to the virtuous prophets.

CHAPTER CIV.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. Ahaz called in the assistance of Tiglath Pileser, king of Assyria, who burthened, and at the same time weakened Judah, with the payment of heavy tribute, but only assisted Ahab in so much as was consistent with the furtherance of his own ambitious schemes. He killed the king of Syria, took Damascus, and led away the people in captivity; but he afforded Ahaz no succors against the foes who pressed him most closely, the Edomites.

2. Ahaz sank into the lowest idolatry, and worshipped the Syrian gods, to whom he erected an altar after the fashion of that at Damascus, which had attracted his attention when he went thither to pay his tribute, which he did with money plundered from the treasury. His death saved his kingdom from perishing in the manner of Samaria.

3. Pekah, who was able, although unprincipled, was assassinated at the instigation of Hoshea, who, after an anarchy which lasted several years, took the sceptre into his feeble hands. Shalmanazer was now king of Assyria, and he fearfully menaced the existence of the kingdom of Israel, or Ephraim.

4. Hoshea endeavored to preserve his kingdom from total subversion by the payment of a tribute; but the Assyrian king, having detected him in a secret correspondence with So, or Sevechus, king of Egypt, marched with a large army into his territories, took Samaria, after a resistance of three years, and led away the ten tribes captive, vast numbers of them being sent to the mountainous region between Assyria and Media.

5. It is vain to attempt to trace them from this period, as they lost their distinctive features and became wholly amalgamated with the people among whom they were placed. It is to be remarked that while the kingdom of Israel was a theatre upon which adventurers, in constant succession, played bloody or insignificant parts, where the best of the monarchs did no more than abolish exotic idolatry without extirpating the symbolic and forbidden worship of Jeroboam, the throne of Judah remained in possession of the lineal descendants of David, and after a period of mal-administration and idolatrous practices, was always, or with few exceptions, filled by a prince of virtue.

6. Thus Hezekiah, who succeeded his father Ahaz, B. C. 726, six years after the total destruction of Samaria, purified the temple, restored the national religion in all its beauty and splendor, and destroyed every object which could bring to mind a recollection of idolatrous practices. The total destruction of the army of Sennacherib occurred during the reign of Hezekiah.

7. Manasseh succeeded Hezekiah, and again the kingdom of Judah became the seat of idolatry and violence. Manasseh was but twelve years old when his reign commenced, and then unworthy ministers perpetrated the cruelties the tyrant afterwards sanctioned. Idols were worshipped with blind devotion, altars raised to them upon consecrated ground, and the very temple profaned by the erection of a graven image.

8. Among other deeds of revolting cruelty, the king is said to have martyred Isaiah, by severing his body with a wooden saw. To such a state of puerile weakness had his vices brought the vile Manasseh, that he was led away, an unresisting captive, to the dungeons of the new king of Assyria, Esarhaddon.

9. Josiah ascended the throne at the age of eight years, 640 B. C. He was a prince of great virtue, and his memory was revered by his subjects at his death, as much as that of Manasseh was execrated. He restored the holy religion in its pristine purity, destroyed the altars and implements of idolatry, and celebrated the passover with unusual splendor. He was shot in opposing the passage of the troops of

Necho, the Egyptian king, through his dominions.

10. His funeral eulogy was pronounced by the prophet Jeremiah. The conqueror marched onward to Jerusalem, which he took, and dethroned Jehoahaz, a younger son of Josiah, who reigned only three months. Necho exacted a heavy fine, and placed Jehoiachim on the throne.

11. From this time the kingdom of Judah was truly but a shadow. Alternate captivity, and the form of a kingdom, which was but a bitter mockery, crushed the hearts and bodies of the Jews. Nebuchadnezzar appeared before Jerusalem, which surrendered at discretion. Jehoiachin was carried away captive with his people to Babylon, and thus commenced the seventy years captivity of the Jewish nation, 606 years B. C.

12. This king was permitted to regain his throne, but remained tributary to the Babylonian monarch. Jerusalem was taken and utterly destroyed by the Babylonians in the reign of Zedekiah, the second king after Jehoiachin. The fate of this monarch was dreadful. Having been seized, he was permitted to retain the use of his eyes only long enough to see his innocent children slain, and then they were put out, and, bowed beneath the weight of massy chains, he was carried to Babylon.

13. Cyrus, king of Persia, having subverted the king of Babylon, permitted the Jews to return to their beloved country, 536 years B. C. They left Persia under the conduct of Zerubbabel and Joshua. They immediately set about rebuilding the temple, which task they accomplished in the space of four years. The sacred vessels, which had been seized upon by Nebuchadnezzar, were restored by Cyrus.

14. Under Cyrus and his successors, the Jews did not feel their dependence to be a galling weight. They enjoyed a moderate degree of prosperity. Darius was favorably disposed to them throughout the whole of his reign. From Artaxerxes, who had married Esther, a Jewess, Ezra obtained great privileges, large sums of money to be appropriated to the service of the temple, and authority to re-establish the government, according to the divine constitution, 480 years B. C.

CHAPTER CV.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. Under the same sovereign, Nehemiah, his cup-bearer, with the permission of Artaxerxes, went to Jerusalem with the intention of rebuilding its walls, and there, assisted by Joiada, the high-priest, he reformed many of the prevalent abuses; enforced the proper observance of the Sabbath, regulated the payment of tithes, and prevented the Jews from marrying strange wives.

2. During the age of Alexander the Great, who granted great immunities to the Jewish priesthood and people, Jaddus the high-priest met him, attired in his sumptuous sacerdotal garments, and showed him that part of the prophecy of Daniel which predicted his conquests.

3. From this period, 323 years B. C., the Egyptians and Syrians successively poured upon Judea, and enslaved its inhabitants. When Ozias 1st filled the office of high-priest, Ptolemy, the governor of Egypt, knowing that the Jews would not strike a blow upon their Sabbath, took undue advantage of that day, and captured Jerusalem upon it, bearing away one hundred thousand persons, whom, however, he used kindly.

4. One hundred and seventy years B. C a false report circulated throughout Judea, that Antiochus (Epiphanes) was dead, and thereupon Jason, with the hope of gaining the sacerdotal office, stirred up great commotions in Jerusalem. Irritated at these disturbances, Antiochus marched into Jerusalem at the head of a large body of troops, slew eighty thousand men, and made captive forty thousand, concluding his expedition by rifling the temple of all its treasures.

5. The cruelties of Antiochus were abominable. He enforced punishments, the most loathsome to the Jews, particularly that of eating the flesh of swine.

Those whose conscientious scruples made them defy the frown of power, were put to death by horrid tortures. Mattathias and his five sons slew the royal commissioner, who was intrusted with the execution of a mother and five sons, and then fled to the wilderness.

6. One hundred and sixty-six years B. C. the Jews, under the enterprising Judas Maccabæus, defeated the generals of Antiochus in several engagements. The king, maddened at the determined character which the revolt had assumed, vowed to extirpate the whole rebel nation, but on his way to Jerusalem fell from his chariot and died.

7. Judas was killed in a battle with one of the generals of the succeeding king, having previously lost a younger brother. His brother Jonathan succeeded as high priest, 153 years B. C. The brothers of Maccabæus persevered successfully in their attempt to re-establish the independence of their country.

8. During the victorious reign of John Hyrcanus, son of Simon Maccabæus, the nation ceased to pay tribute to the Syrian monarch. He died, greatly regretted, 135 years B. C. His family are classed, in Jewish annals, under the name of the Asmonean dynasty, which lasted 126 years. The sons of Hyrcanus assumed the title as well as the authority of kings. It may be remarked that the high priesthood, although it remained in the family of Hyrcanus, did not continue in the person of the monarch, although John Hyrcanus, in his own person, united the dignity of priest with the authority of leader.

9. Aristobulus, one of the sons of Hyrcanus, who reigned after him, was of a jealous and cruel disposition. He put to death his brother, on suspicion of treason. His mother, claiming to be sovereign on the authority of the will of Hyrcanus, was seized, and starved to death by order of her tyrannical son, who placed a diadem upon his brows, and assumed all the insignia of royalty. A sickness which seized him was brought to a fatal and speedy close by the pangs of remorse which he experienced for the treatment of his mother.

10. Pompey, when in Jerusalem, restored the second Hyrcanus, with the title of prince of the Jews, and intrusted Antipater, a proselyte of Idumea, with the administration of government, 63 years B. C. Aristobulus had been carried captive to Rome by Pompey; but Cæsar, during the civil wars, sent him to Judea, to engage his people in favor of the future emperor. He was, however, intercepted and poisoned by enemies.

11. Pompey gave orders that Alexander, the son of Aristobulus, should be poisoned. The family of the Herodians possessed the throne, Herod the Great, son of Antipater, being proclaimed king by the Roman senate, 37 years B. C. The public splendor of Herod's reign is singular, contrasted with the pitchy darkness of his private life.

12. Herod had married Mariamne, the daughter of Hyrcanus, and, to please his wife, made her brother Aristobulus high priest. Finding him much beloved by the Jews, he had him killed. Meeting Augustus at Rhodes after the battle of Actium, he was confirmed in the possession of the throne of Judea. On his return, he put to death Mariamne, and afterwards her mother Alexandra, who acted a base part in reviling her unfortunate daughter when led to execution, in hopes of averting the suspicions of Herod from herself.

13. Henceforth a dark and ferocious spirit influenced the conduct of Herod; and his reign, drawing to a close, was a scene of blood and lamentation. He put to death Aristobulus and Alexander, his children by Mariamne, at the instigation of his third son. Antipater shared their fate the next year. Herod also ordered the massacre of the innocents, the death of all the children of Bethlehem,* in hopes that the infant Jesus would fall among them.

14. Herod had planned in his will a general mourning to take place at his death, by commanding a massacre which, had it been executed, would have filled the land with lamentations. Happily however for mankind, the dying commands of tyrants seldom meet with strict obedience, and

* In Judea, at the south-west of Jerusalem.

death, at least, palsies the hand of oppression.

CHAPTER CVI.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. The Savior of mankind, promised by the prophets, the Messiah whom the Jews refused to recognise, JESUS CHRIST, was born at a time of peace, while the angels who announced his birth, promised good will and protection to the human race. This great event, according to common reckoning, took place in the thirty-first year of the reign of Augustus, in the one hundred and ninety-fifth Olympiad, seven hundred and fifty-two years after the building of Rome, and during the consulship of Caius Julius Cæsar.

2. The learned are of opinion that there is an error in the common computation, and that the birth of Christ happened in the twenty-seventh year of Augustus, four years before the vulgar date. Time, however, has so far sanctioned the mistake, that the erroneous date is still used in relating historical events.

3. During the reign of Herod, the infant Jesus was removed, by the command of God, into Egypt; but on Herod's death, his parents returned to dwell in Nazareth, a city of Galilee. It is remarkable that the gates of the temple of Janus were closed at the birth of our Savior, the third instance only which occurred during seven hundred years.

4. With the life of our Savior every reader is acquainted, and it is unnecessary to enter here into an abstract of the history of his mission and its success, detailed with such fidelity in the sacred book which is placed within the reach of every one, by the exertions of benevolence and piety. We see the divine origin in each word and action of our Redeemer, nor can the infidel point out one earthly thought or deed in the authentic record of his whole existence.

5. With awe and love we trace his laborious and useful progress, until we behold him brought before Pontius Pilate, the Roman governor, upon a false accusation of the Jews, tried, and condemned to suffer the cruel death of the cross. Our Savior suffers the execution of the sentence, which is accompanied by unusual cruelties and infamy. Nature herself shudders at the impiety of man, and prodigies declare the extent of the crime which has been committed.

6. The resurrection of Christ, the devotion of his beloved apostles, their virtues and their sufferings, are displayed before our eyes in the glowing colors of divine inspiration. Considering the age in which the apostles lived, the darkness, apostasy, and incredulity of mankind, the rapidity with which the men of God disseminated their principles was miraculous.

7. The civil affairs of Judea, from the period of its existence as a Roman province to the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus Vespasian, are unnoticed in the interest which the religious events of the age awaken, and they are, in themselves, unimportant. Archelaus possessed only a fourth of the kingdom, or a tetrarchy, the rest of the country being divided into three other tetrarchies, viz: that of Galilee and Petræa, governed by Herod Antipas; that of Iturea, possessed by Philip, a son of Herod like the preceding governor, and Abilene the possession of Egesanias, who was afterwards banished into Gaul, and the tetrarchy given to Pontius Pilate.

8. Herod II., named Antipas, succeeded Archelaus. He married his brother Philip's wife, the incestuous union for which John the Baptist denounced him. The crucifixion, burial, resurrection and ascension of Jesus took place during the reign of Herod II. Caligula, the Roman emperor, on the death of Herod II., conferred on his son the tetrarchy of his uncle Philip, with the title of king.

9. Shortly after the commencement of his reign, the other tetrarchies came into his hands. He was surnamed Herod the Great. His reign was distinguished by cruelty to the apostles. He murdered James and imprisoned Peter, but was himself smitten by an angel of the Lord, and died devoured by worms.

10. The last king of Jewry, the son of the preceding monarch, was the Agrippa before whom Paul pleaded in defence of the holy Gospel. During the reign of Agrippa Minor, Jerusalem was besieged by Titus, 70 A. D. The cause of this is to be found in the commotions of the Jews about that time, in which John and Simon, the zealots, were concerned. A slight view of the internal state of Judea during this period, has been presented in the history of Rome.

CHAPTER CVII.

SACRED HISTORY—CONTINUED.

1. Nero was the Roman emperor under whose auspices the war with the Jews began. He intrusted the command of the expedition to his general Vespasian, who, accompanied by his son Titus, at the head of a vast force, arrived in Syria 67 years A. C. Being chosen emperor shortly after, Vespasian set out for Rome, leaving his brave son to conduct the military operations.

2. We have seen with what perseverance, valor, and consummate skill, Titus prosecuted his undertaking, what success crowned his endeavors, and what determined, infatuated opposition he had to overcome. The Jews, inflamed by the predictions of false prophets, fought to the last, even after the destruction of the temple, which was fired contrary to the express commands of Titus, destroyed all their hopes, and showed that the hand of God was against them.

3. The prophecies of the Scriptures, with regard to the Jews, were fully accomplished. Favorable terms offered by Titus having been twice contemptuously rejected by the Jews, there remained no hope of mercy for them, and they were slaughtered like beasts, indiscriminately. Ninety-seven thousand prisoners were taken during the siege, and a million of human beings perished in the city at the same period.

4. The history of this siege abounds with instances of individual valor and individual distress. The fortress called the Antonia stood upon a bold high rock at the north-west corner of the temple. When this was taken by the Romans, one of its watch-towers was a favorite post whence Titus surveyed the fortunes of the contest, and marked occurrences in which individual bravery was displayed, that he might reward them.

5. On one occasion, when Simon and John, uniting their forces, pressed heavily upon the Romans, on whom they showered darts and javelins, a Bithynian sentinel named Julian, a man of prodigious strength and courage, singly charged the Jews, who fell back before him, into the corner of the inner court of the temple. Here, the iron nails in his shoes caused him to slip, and he came down with a crushing fall, the weight of his armor, his exhaustion, and

Death of Julian.

the number of Jews pressing over him, preventing him from rising. Still the gallant Julian defended himself, until all his limbs were lopped off, and he sank from a mortal wound.

6. A woman who had entered the city rich, but who was reduced to beggary by the robbers, having in vain endeavored to nurse her famished child, killed it, cooked it, and ate one half. The smoke and the smell of hissing flesh attracted the robbers to her door; they demanded entrance, and were admitted. They asked for food, and were answered, 'Part of my meal I have reserved for my good friends.' With a wild and ghastly smile she uncovered the

remains of her poor child. The savage men shrunk back in horror at the spectacle, and at the shrill tone of voice in which the fearful woman spake: 'Eat! for I have eaten; or, if ye be more dainty than a woman, more tender-hearted than a mother, go—part have I devoured—leave me in peace to eat the rest.'

7. Some of the Jews, to prevent their treasures from falling into the hands of their enemies, swallowed precious gems and gold. A report circulated that some deserters from the city, during the siege, had done this, and the ferocious soldiery of Titus pursued them, and cut open their living bodies to obtain the plunder. Although Titus made an act of this kind capital, he could not prevent the perpetration of it.

8. After the destruction of the city by Titus, a few Jews yet remained in their country tributary to Rome. Jerusalem was partly rebuilt, and the inhabitants, in consequence of an attempted rebellion in 118, brought upon themselves the total destruction of the city, which was levelled with the earth by Adrian, forty-seven years after the siege by Titus, and thus the prophecy of Christ, who predicted that not one stone should remain upon another, was fulfilled.

9. Adrian soon rebuilt it anew, and named it Ælia Capitolina; but when visited by Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great, it was in ruins and completely desolate. The Jews heard of the apostasy of Julian with delight, and fondly imagined that by his means they should regain consequence and independence. But they were doomed to be deceived. Their existence and success, dispersed as they are, is problematical. Even where worst treated, and experiencing every burthen which government can inflict, they yet increase, and amass wealth which they dare not betray or enjoy.

10. It is stated in a publication worthy of respect (the Weimar Geographical Ephemerides) that the whole number of Jews amounts to three millions, which is perhaps too moderate an estimate. These people are descended directly from those who, under the guidance of Moses, more than three thousand years ago, left Egypt for the Land of Promise. They still exist in the hope of a glorious re-union, a triumphant expectation which they cherish in spite of every impending calamity.

CHAPTER CVIII.

SACRED HISTORY—CONCLUDED.

1. There are yet many remains of ancient works in the Holy Land, which are visited with eagerness, and never left with disappointment. Jacob's well, which is of undoubted antiquity, is hewn out of solid rock, to the depth of thirty-five yards. It is about three yards in diameter, and has a stone vault raised over it.

2. The pools of Solomon are supposed to have been formed by order of that great monarch, and appear to have required an immense amount of treasure and labor to complete them. They are all walled and plastered, and placed above each other so that the water from the highest may flow into the second, and the supply from the second into the third and last. They are all ninety paces broad, but the length varies; that of the most conspicuous is two hundred and twenty paces. They contain much water.

3. The pools of Gihon and Bethesda are of a singular description, and equally worthy of curiosity. Sepulchral monuments are frequent throughout Judea, those about Jerusalem being the most wonderful. They are excavated in solid rocks of marble, and the different spacious compartments are carefully elaborated. There were not many large cities; besides Jerusalem, Hebron, Gaza and Ascalon possessed considerable repute.

4. Some description of Jerusalem has been given. It stood upon several hills. Zion was the principal, and formed the southern quarter of the city; mount Moriah, upon which the magnificent temple of Solomon stood, was in the eastern part of the lower city. When Adrian rebuilt it, he altered the site of it, excluding the

ancient quarter of Zion. At present, the inhabitants are a motley mixture of Turks, Christians, and Jews.

5. Abraham and his family were buried at Hebron, which bore the name of St. Abraham during the crusades, and is still called by the Arabs Cabr-Ibrahim, the tomb of Abraham. Gaza and Ascalon, towns upon the coast, preserve their ancient names in common with many other towns in Palestine. Gaza was surrounded by walls and numerous towers. Ascalon also was a place of great strength, and once ornamented by magnificent buildings. Its present wretched state forms a great contrast to its former grandeur.

6. The religion of the Jews, called Judaism, was the true religion of former days. The gospel lights have now eclipsed it, making clear and confirming its great general principles, and putting an end to its rites and ceremonies. The Jews were a rebellious people, continually endeavoring to promulgate idol-worship, and defile the true religion. Hence severe judgments were frequently sent upon them.

7. Their government was a theocracy, under the immediate guidance of the Almighty, and this distinguished them from every other nation on the face of the earth. The Jews had peculiar rites which distinguished them from other tribes and races. The principal was that of circumcision.

8. On festival days, a great abundance and variety of food was provided, but generally their diet was of the plainest order; bread, water, and vinegar being used by the greater part of the people. Goat's milk was held in high estimation, and honey regarded as a great delicacy. Social entertainments, with music and dancing of a religious character, formed the chief amusements of the Jews.

9. They had two kinds of high places; in one sort they celebrated the worship of the true God, burning incense and sacrificing to him; in the other they indulged in idolatrous rites, the most shameful, wicked and absurd. Their sorrow for the dead was exhibited by rending their garments, scattering ashes upon their heads, wearing sackcloth, and casting themselves upon the ground.

Jews' Mourning.

10. The rites of burial were only refused to suicides, and even they might receive interment in the customary manner after sunset. The funeral solemnities were regarded with reverence, and to die in a situation which prevented their observance was evidently considered as a heavy calamity. The sepulchres were generally cut in rock, and kindred were carefully interred together.

11. Theology was the branch of learning principally cultivated by the Israelites. They had but a slender knowledge of astronomy. Religion was taught in the schools of the prophets. The Hebrew language is chaste and natural. The art of writing was probably known and practised at an early age among them. Tablets of stone, and also rolls, undoubtedly made of skins, were the materials on which they wrote.

12. In the arts of war and peace—among the latter, agriculture, poetry and music,—the Israelites were great proficients. Their offensive weapons were broad, curved swords, slings, bows and arrows, javelins, and double-edged swords. Their defensive arms were bucklers, helmets, coats of mail targets, and breast-pieces.

13. Few trades, save those of necessity, were much practised by them previously to the reign of Solomon, during which luxury was introduced. Of all the fine arts, in poetry alone, they were excellent, unrivalled. Of the art of navigation they

were ignorant, and Solomon employed foreign sailors on board his trading vessels. Their commerce brought rich stuffs from Tyre, linen, gold and other valuable commodities, in exchange for corn, balm, &c. The Phœnicians were the merchants of the age.

14. The Canaanites, whose history is intimately connected with that of the Jews, were divided into different classes, husbandmen and shepherds, merchants, artificers and soldiers. The merchants have received honorable notice in the sketch of the Phœnicians; the soldiers were brave and skilful, and led a wandering life like the shepherds. Up to the days of Abraham, when Melchisedek was a priest of the true God, the Canaanites were sincere worshippers; but afterwards they plunged into the most cruel and unnatural idolatry.

CHAPTER CIX.

GENERAL VIEW.

1. The surface of the earth, previous to the deluge, did not probably present the various inequalities which it now exhibits, and which were doubtless produced by the convulsions occasioned by the flood, the retiring eddies and vast whirlpools of that immense body of waters when it subsided.

2. No mention is made in Scripture of a variety of seasons, and it has been conjectured that spring reigned without a break, before the flood. *Ver erat eternum.* The extent of the antediluvian population cannot be ascertained, as few or no human remains exhibiting the ruins of the deluge, have been found in the surface of the earth, unlike marine productions, which have frequently been discovered buried in places far remote from the sea. Some contend that the population was very great; but the general opinion is, that it was limited.

3. The wonderful longevity of the antediluvians has given rise to endless conjectures with regard to its cause. It is imagined that the air was perfectly pure before the deluge, which event rendered it unwholesome, and from this cause the life of each generation was much shorter than that of the preceding. If physical causes did not exist, the divine author of existence could abridge it without them.

4. In considering the length of human life at this early period of the world, we must suppose that the antediluvians made great improvements in the arts. Music and the art of working metals were discovered by the last generation of Cain.

5. The posterity of Seth is said to have made certain discoveries in astronomical science, which were engraven on two pillars, one of brick, the other of stone; the latter of which remained to the time of Josephus, nearly one hundred years A. C. This seems rather improbable, considering that no other memorial of antediluvian science is extant.

6. The conjectures formed with regard to the government and peculiar habits of men before the deluge, are useless, and built upon no foundation whatever, being speculations better adapted to the dreams of poetry, than the sober pages of historic writing.

7. Necessity first urged the cultivation of arts, afterwards continued by convenience and luxury. The erection of huts, and the formation of weapons for the battle and the hunt, were among the primitive arts. Astronomy originated with the Chaldeans, who, being shepherds, watched their flocks in

> ——— the night
> Of cloudless climes and starry skies.

8. Geometry was discovered by the Egyptians, whom the annual overflow of the Nile compelled to a frequent measurement of the lands which its waters disturbed. Medicine was at first a simple science, in a primitive and healthy state of society, where diseases were few, and by no means complex.

9. The Israelites and Egyptians were skilful agriculturists; the Romans, after them, cultivated the land with much greater success and attention than the Greeks. The most distinguished citizens and soldiers of Rome pursued, when relieved from the toils of policy or war, the arts of agriculture. The civil wars rapidly reduced

the appearance of the country, from fertility to desolation, when Virgil, at the request of Augustus, tuned his lyric to rustic echoes. The effect of the Georgics was one of the best triumphs of poetry. The country became a garden,—vines drooped from tree to tree, grapes hung in profuse clusters, and the fields presented unbroken acres of moving and golden grain. Agriculture was restored with success.

10. In building, luxury soon erected palaces, where necessity had raised but humble huts. Thence sprang gigantic columns of the different orders of architecture, fairy palaces, and baths of unrivalled beauty.

11. The streets of Rome, even in its brightest days, were described as rough and filled with dirt. The ancients paid little attention to the streets of their cities, but lavished wealth and labor on their public roads. Yet travelling was conducted at a slow rate. As an exception to this, it may be observed that Tiberius travelled two hundred miles in the course of one day and night, when sent by Augustus to console his sick brother Germanicus. Then again, Cicero tells us that a messenger sent from Rome to his government of Cilicia, in Asia Minor, was forty-seven days upon the road.

12. Intelligence was conveyed among the ancients by public criers, who were employed by individuals, and under the direction of the police. Official proclamations, edicts, and sometimes scraps of more trivial import, were posted upon columns in public places. Historians collected materials from these most probably, and friends distributed the items of intelligence to their provincial acquaintances.

13. Glass is said to have been discovered by chance. Some travellers in Syria, as Pliny informs us, being obliged to make a fire on the ground, used the herb *kali*, the salt of which amalgamating with the sand, as the plants were reduced to ashes, formed glass. The invention was eagerly seized upon by the Orientals, and from them the Romans purchased their costly glass vessels, being unacquainted with the manufacture of them until the reign of Tiberius.

14. Glass mirrors were not made by the ancients. Mirrors were composed of silver, likewise of mixed metals, copper and tin amalgamated, obsidian stone and other substances. Silver, being capable of receiving a high polish, was the most usual material. Pliny says that the manufacture of glass mirrors was attempted in the Tyrian glass-houses; but the success of the experiments is not apparent.

15. Linen was an Egyptian invention, and of a very early date, for mummies of very great antiquity are found bandaged in it. The Romans, however, began to use it only in the second century of the Christian era; up to which period their tunics were made of wool.

16. The art of dyeing was early discovered, and arrived at great perfection. The Jews, Babylonians, and Egyptians extracted dyes from vegetable, animal, and mineral substances, which they applied with equal dexterity to leather, ivory, tortoise-shell, the hair of animals, wax, wood, and earth. They were even able to fix a permanent stain on marble.

17. The steel of the ancients, who were acquainted with its manufacture at a very early age, was of a superior quality, much less brittle than our best steel, and capable of being hammered. The ancients were acquainted with many inventions, nearly all of which were in an imperfect state: refinement and improvement were left to the moderns, and later ages have shown the power of human skill in bringing many of the arts as close to perfection as the infirmity of human genius will allow.

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ANCIENT EUROPE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GERMANY OCEAN
BALTIC SEA
SARMATIA
GERMANY
BELGÆ
AQUITAINE
AQUITAINE OCEAN
ILLYRICUM
PANNONIA
RHETIA
ADRIATIC SEA
MACEDONIA
GREECE
IONIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SARDINIA SEA
CORSICA
SICILY
BALEARES Is.
BRITANNIA
HIBERNIA
Rome
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Syracuse
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